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The employment and utilization of generic special teachers in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

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THE EMPLOYMENT AND UTILIZATION OF GENERIC SPECIAL TEACHERS IN THE COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS

A Dissertation Presented

By

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OF GENERIC SPECIAL TEACHERS

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DEDICATION

This dissertation, and the effort and intention which produced it, is dedicated to Helen, Shannon, and Jarrett Fussell. I am continuously aware of the contribution they make to me by sharing their lives with me.

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I extend my acknowledgement and gratitude to: my parents, Kennett and Aurelia Fussell, for their love, support and patience; French and Harriet Hyre, both for their support and for the creation of an incentive to complete this work; Bill and Peggy Wilson, for their timely, gentle, and persistent support; my committee, Douglas Forsyth, Roger Frant, and especially Irene Nystrom, who guided this work from afar; my brother, Ronnie, who has contributed his love and support at every critical juncture of this work, if not my life; my brothers and sisters, Louie, George, Peggy, and Mary, for never letting me off the hook to finish; my friends and mentors, Stan Kulikowski and Robert Prouty; my initial committee members, Bob Miltz and R.D. Jackson, who helped me get started; and Werner Erhard, for creating an experience which allowed me to know myself and own the value of my work.

ABSTRACT

The Employment and Utilization
of Generic Special Teachers
in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts
May, 1981
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The purpose of this research was to determine 1) whether people trained in Massachusetts as generic special educators were in fact being employed in Massachusetts schools to function in the roles for which they were trained; 2) did the employment pattern reflect differences among training programs or differences among local school systems; 3) could any differences be linked to hypothesized contributing factors: a) collaboration between training programs and school systems, b) definition of the generic role by training programs, c) funding of training programs, d) creation of new special education positions within school systems, and e) locus of administrative

support of the generic role within school systems; and 4) were these graduates filling any other particular professional role.

During the spring of 1978 a survey was conducted of generic training programs approved by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts and the graduates of those programs. Data were collected via interviews. Two (2) questionnaires had been developed to elicit the relevant data during the interviews. They were 1) the Program Questionnaire and 2) the Graduate Questionnaire. The program interview focused on program history and current program information. The informant was the faculty member identified as responsible for the program development and implementation. The graduate interview focused on the subsequent professional experience of each graduate employed within the state. One hundred and eighty (180) graduates of generic programs were identified. One hundred and seventy-one (171) responded to the questionnaire. Thirteen (13) generic programs at nine (9) colleges and the state university were interviewed.

This research displays the utilization of Massachusetts-educated-and employed generic special teachers during the 1977-1978 school year with a high degree of certainty. However, the research identifying the factors contributing to the nature and scope of that utilization was more

confounded than had been predicted. In addition to expected problems due to unexamined variables within school systems, some of the examined variables could not be differentiated as clearly as needed to establish trends.

The areas of training and collaboration investigated by this research deserve examination by training institutions if the programs they develop and disseminate are to provide truly functional roles via teachers in schools. At the time of this research the training programs involved had had only minor measurable effect and success at transforming state policy into functioning models which were observable in schools. Further, the data demonstrated an observable degree of separation between the training models described by the programs and the actual behaviors of the teachers in the schools. In that sense, the experience of these programs was similar to the usual history of model development and implementation found in the literture did not occur in the context of a legislated mandate. This suggests that 1) the design of models by training programs should include available teacher and school system input to a greater degree than found in this study, and 2) the manner in which state regulations and policies are formed, disseminated, and implemented in models like the generic special teacher deserve more coordination and attention.

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INTRODUCTION

Background to the Problem

In 1974 Massachusetts implemented Chapter 766, the Commonwealth Special Education Law, which had been passed by the legislature two (2) years earlier. The law and its language were consistent with a growing body of related federal judicial decisions and with the trend of opinion among a large group of special educators that self-contained classrooms were not beneficial for many special needs children (Ross, DeYoung, and Cohen, 1971). Research had shown special class placement to be to the disadvantage of many children (Jones, 1972; MacMillan, 1971; Hall, 1970). Judicial decisions had labeled some special class placements as discriminatory (Ross, DeYoung, and Cohen, 1971).

The intent of Chapter 766 was that children with special needs be mainstreamed (i.e., receive an appropriate education within the least restrictive environment). The law required that the first two types of service to be provided a child are 1) additional direct or indirect

instruction, consultation service, materials, equipment, or aid provided to the regular classroom teachers which directly benefits children requiring special education (502.1, Chapter 766), and 2) supplementary individual or small group instruction or treatment in conjunction with a regular class program (502.2, Chapter 766).

While the Division of Special Education of the State Department of Education was developing regulations for the implementation of the law, it encouraged the State University and colleges to design models and prepare professionals who could facilitate implementation. To that end the Division of Special Education issued a role definition of one such professional, a generic special teacher, who would function to keep special needs children in the mainstream of the regular classroom when appropriate.

> Generic Special Teacher: Role Definition: This role is a relatively new one. Generic special teachers are responsible for on-going support and in-service training for regular classroom teachers to assist in providing appropriate educational opportunities for children who are integrated into the regular classroom more than 75% of the time. The Generic Special Teacher must be competent to work with children with diverse typologies of educational needs. Several aspects of this role differentiate it from more traditional special educational roles. Major emphasis is placed on competence in working effectively with adults, as well as with children. A thorough knowledge of regular classroom materials, curricula, and management is also required. In addition, the Generic Special Teacher must be competent in facilitating change processes in public school systems. It should be emphasized that the Generic Special Teacher is to be considered primarily as a teacher of children and adults rather than as an administrator.

> Among the wide variety of training models for preparation of Generic Special Teachers are: The Diagnostic Prescriptive Teacher (Prouty, et al.), the Consulting Teacher (McKenzie, et al.) and the Curriculum Consultant (Meyen, et al.). (Massachusetts-Division of Special Education, 1973)

The Division of Special Education viewed the preparation and utilization of generic personnel as facilitating the implementation of Chapter 766. In that context institutions were encouraged to train such personnel and school systems were encouraged to use them. It is clear that the intentions of division personnel with regards to the development of generic special teachers were the result of careful analyses of 1) what was needed and absent in current special education services, and 2) what was needed to bring about successful implementation of the law at the school level. However, in the process of moving to institutionalize that missing piece, it appears that the evidence and experience of the previous ten (10) years, available in the literature, was considered in a disjointed fashion.

During the previous ten (10) years universities and public school systems across the nation had been experimenting with the training and utilization of roles similar to generic special educators. A review of this literature does not reveal any controlled experimentation which compared programs concerned with training this type of professional and acceptance of this role by local school

systems. That history does provide a body of experience from which the foundations for the structure of this research were drawn, and from which the components of successful introduction of models in school systems could be elicited.

It appears that school systems that have successfully responded to mandates for progressive inclusion of special needs children within the regular structure have usually demonstrated no preference for a specific model to achieve that goal (Birch, 1974; Reynolds and Davis, 1971). The utilization of a university-developed model by a school system seems to have a direct relationship to the extent of initial and ongoing collaboration between that school system and the university personnel in designing and developing the model (Lynch, 1975; McKenzie, Egner, Knight, Perelman, Schneider, and Garvin, 1970; Parker, 1975).

There have been school systems which have used generic teachers to function in a role that was narrowly defined according to a model developed by a university without input from the school system. However, even where utilization of these models has helped meet school system goals such as eliminating self-contained classrooms for special needs teachers, models have tended to be used only as long as the local training program continues. Often, when the training program was discontinued or lost funding, the

school system soon redefined its special education services (Adamson, 1970; Parker, 1975).

The style of central administration (i.e., state, county, city, and town) that has appeared to be most facilitative of mainstreaming efforts by local schools and local systems involves 1) a consistent articulation of policies and goals, 2) support in terms of resources and coordination of in-service in response to specific need, and 3) the absence of a centrally-mandated model (Birch, 1974; Reynolds and Davis, 1971). The successful systems surveyed have resisted using a university-designed curriculum for in-service (Tacoma Public Schools, 1974; Zawadshi, 1973), consistently preferring that schools design their own programs based on local need utilizing local resources and that in-service be responsive to specific requests for help (Birch, 1974; Kanawha County Schools, 1972; Lynch, 1975). The experience of these systems indicates that the local school, the principal and his staff, functioning as an autonomous unit, can best determine its needs, the most appropriate responses to its problems, and the most efficient use of its energies. The review of the literature in Chapter II will elaborate upon these three (3) components 1) collaboration, 2) nature and source of definition, and 3) local autonomy, via a case study review of reports found in the literature.

By its actions from 1972 through the spring of 1978, the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, Department of Education, Division of Special Education had created a unique opportunity to study model development and program implementation in general and the generic special teacher in particular. The state established definable parameters by disseminating its version of a generic special teacher role definition and by subjecting programs that sought certification and approval to a state-coordinated audit. From 1974 until the spring of 1978 fourteen (14) colleges and the state university indicated to the Division of Special Education their intention to develop programs preparing professionals for the generic role. A first step to ascertaining the usefulness of a program is to study the utilization of that program's graduates. Before these new professionals could make a consistent, educational impact as generic special teachers, they must be employed in that role. This research sought to identify factors which assisted or prevented the introduction of this complex role into the public school arena via a study of the employment and utilization of generic program graduates.

It is important to note here that the direction of activity of the Division of Special Education can be considered to have directly confronted the thrust of the three components which surfaced in the literature and were

discussed above. The division disseminated a definition of a role and developed the guidelines for the preparation and utilization of that role via a task force which included state department and higher education participants and which did not include local school system participants. Collaboration with local school systems was expected but not required as a component of the program audit conducted by the division which certified the various training programs. In brief, due partly to short timelines and budgets for implementation, the state did not require or model a participatory process which included local school systems in the development or utilization of generic teachers.

Focus of the Inquiry

The purpose of this research was to determine 1) whether people trained in Massachusetts as generic special educators are in fact being employed in Massachusetts public schools to function in the roles for which they were trained; 2) does the employment pattern reflect differences among training programs or differences among local school systems; 3) can any differences be linked to hypothesized contributing factors: (a) collaboration between training programs and school systems, (b) definition of the generic role by training programs, (c) funding of training

programs, (d) creation of new special education positions within school systems, and (e) locus of administrative support of the generic role within school systems; and 4) are these graduates filling any other particular professional role.

Mode of Inquiry

During the spring of 1978 a survey was conducted of generic training programs approved by the commonwealth of Massachusetts and the graduates of those programs. Data were collected via interviews. Two (2) questionnaires had been developed to elicit the relevant data during the interviews. They are 1) the Program Questionnaire (Appendix A) and 2) the Graduate Questionnaire (Appendix B).

The program interview focused on program history and current program information. The informant was the faculty member identified as responsible for the program development and implementation. The graduate interview focused on the subsequent professional experience of each graduate employed within the state.

One hundred and eighty (180) graduates of generic programs were identified. One hundred and seventy-one (171) responded to the questionnaire. Thirteen (13) generic programs at nine (9) colleges and the state university were interviewed. These were the programs that had graduated a

generic teacher in time to be employed in the role during the 1977-1978 school year.

Delimitations of the Inquiry

This research focused on an identified, finite population, the September 1974-December 1977, graduates of the state-approved generic training programs in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. The Special Education Division's definition of the role and the state-audit process insured that only graduate degree and in-service, licensing programs were considered as part of the studied population. The school year, 1976-1977, was the first year that a significant number of graduates could be expected from generic training programs. The first program approval occurred in the fall of 1975, with retroactive approval for graduates of the previous school year, 1974-1975, and many of the programs approved during the 1975-1976 school year required three semesters of coursework and practicum. As a result of these factors this research reports the utilization of Massachusetts-educated generic special teachers during 1977-1978 with a high degree of certainty.

Results of the Study

This research discovered that twenty-nine (29) (17%) of the graduates were employed in public schools to

function in generic roles as defined by the state. The graduates were employed only locally by systems which were in communication with training programs. The factors of collaboration, definition, and funding as aspects of the various training programs were not demonstrably related to employment levels of graduates. Of the graduates reporting employment in generic roles, thirty-one (31) (77%) were in newly established positions. The utilization of a role which fit the state generic definition was more in evidence where the generic graduate reported to the principal and could influence the design of the role. With regards to other roles, thirty-eight (38) graduates (22%) were in resource room positions and thirty (30) (18%) were in administrative positions.

Implications of the Study

The areas of training and collaboration investigated by this research deserve examination by training institutions if the programs they develop and disseminate are to provide truly functional roles via teachers in schools. At the time of this research the training programs involved had had only minor measurable effect and success at transforming state policy into functioning models which were observable in schools. Further, the data demonstrated an observable degree of separation between the training models

described by the programs and the actual behaviors of the teachers in the schools. In that sense, the experience of the programs was similar to the history of previous model development and implementation described in Chapter II. However, the programmatic histories described in the literature did not occur in the context of a legislated mandate. This suggests that 1) the design of the models by the training programs in this study should have included the available teacher and school system input to some greater degree, and 2) the manner in which state regulations and policies were formed, disseminated, and implemented deserved more coordination and attention.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Historical Perspective

From the alms houses of colonial times, thru the asylums of the 1900's, to the state schools of yesterday and today, society has always had its visible, institutional evidence of the exclusion of the very different and the very deficient. Coexistent with this evidence of exclusion, society has continuously demonstrated interest in expanding its boundaries to reintroduce the less different and deficient from among the excluded group. The dilemma has always been "where to draw the line," and it hasn't really seemed to matter where the line was drawn. There are always individuals seen as marginal to the excluded group, and every effort to redefine the parameters of either exclusion or inclusion creates a new "marginal" group.

In 1896, day school programs for some mildly handicapped children, identified as educable mentally retarded (EMR), were established in Providence, Rhode Island. The children placed in those classes had not previously been in schools. They had been at home or in institutions

because they had been considered unfit for public education. There was societal pressure to redefine public education to include classroom situations which, albeit self-contained, would permit some form of social interaction between these children and normal children. There was, simultaneously, some concern about the effect on the normal children and the value received for the public expense, but this effort at inclusion prevailed (Kanner, 1964). Once established and defined, however, these classes had natural potential for becoming the most obvious and suitable habitat for borderline individuals formerly in the normal regular classrooms. Thus, as society pressed to include and accommodate greater variation within the total educational structure, the educational structure within society became more sophisticated, developing a larger and larger substructure to accommodate that variation without overwhelming superstructural trauma. Special Education was born.

Recently, like many other seemingly unquestioned traditions in this country, Special Education was shaken by the powder-keg sixties. Special Education had not been rolling along without any self-examination, argument or reflection. The literature of the sixties lists some of the questions in its titles: The myth of mental retardation (Brabner, 1967); Special education as developmental

capital (Deno, 1970); Special education for the mildly retarded--Is much of it justifiable (Dunn, 1968); To fix or to cope: A dilemma for special education (Harvey, 1969); Special education for the inner city: A challenge for the future or another means for cooling the mark out (Johnson, 1969); Special education: A teapot in a tempest (Lilly, 1970); A rational look at special class placement (Miller and Schoenfelder, 1969); The questionable role of specialists in special education (Reger, 1966); Integration vs segregation: A useless dialectic (Valletutti, 1969). By the mid-sixties over half a million children were in programs for the mentally retarded and 90% of those programs were self-contained (Mackie, 1969).

The questions which began to make a difference were civil rights questions regarding the rights of the children in "special education" programs. Two (2) such questions were: If education, in addition to being the right of every citizen, is also the means by which the majority of citizens can improve the condition and quality of their lives, then is not the relegation of individuals or classes to situations of reduced educational opportunity a deprivation of their rights? and, If some stigmas can demonstrably reduce an individual's social and economic opportunities, then is it not unjust to institutionally establish a stigmatizing label (e.g., Educable Mentally

Retarded), which follows a person through life as a matter of public record? (Hobson vs Hansen, 1967; Ross, DeYoung, and Cohen, 1971; Abeson, Bolick, and Hass, 1975; Melcher, 1976).

The process in 1968 seemed to be in perpetual motion, as new special education classes were established, children were found to fill them. However, in 1968, as opposed to 1896, the process had become one of exclusion. Research indicated, moreover, that special classes for EMRs did not demonstrably enable assigned children to acquire necessary knowledge and skills, and that assignment to those classes did demonstrably negatively affect a child's educational and occupational opportunity (Coleman, Campbell, Holson, McPartland, Mood, Weinfeld, and York, 1966). Special education could no longer turn itself around. It could wait expectantly for the courts to do it (Ross, DeYoung, and Cohen, 1971).

> It is regrettable, of course, that in deciding this case this court must act in an area so alien to its expertise. It would be far better indeed for these great social and political problems to be resolved in the political arena by other branches of government. But these are social and political problems which seem at times to defy such resolution. In such situations, under our system, the judiciary must bear a hand and accept its responsibility to assist in the solution where constitutional rights hang in the balance. (Hobson vs Hansen, 1967: p. 517)

Lloyd Dunn, a respected leader in special education, had some suggestions concerning a proactive direction for special education.

> A moratorium needs to be placed on the proliferation (if not continuance) of self-contained special classes which enroll primarily the ethnically and/or economically disadvantaged children we had been labeling educable mentally retarded. Such pupils should be left in (or returned to) the regular elementary grades until we are "tooled up" to do something better for them. (Dunn, 1968: p. 12)

To support the children and teachers in the regular classroom

> the core of the staff would be a variety of master teachers with different specialties--such as in motor development, perceptual training, language development, social and personality development, remedial education, and so forth. Non-educators such as physicians, psychologists, and social workers would be retained in a consultative role, or pupils would be referred out to such paraeducational professionals as needed. (p. 12)

For Dunn, a less desirable but more feasible procedure would be to combine several of the above roles in one teacher. "It is suggested that 15 or 20 percent of the most insightful educators be prepared for and assigned to prescriptive teaching" (p. 12).

Many other educators had been formulating such a view, and their response included the preparation of professionals somewhat similar to those Dunn had described. In 1970 Hugh McKenzie reported on the first year, 1968-1969, of his "Consulting Teacher" program at the University of Vermont. McKenzie's model had a master teacher consulting

with the regular classroom teacher, while the regular classroom teacher retained responsibility for teaching, diagnosis and remediation.

> The concept of a consulting teacher in special education is not new (Meyen, 1969), and roles of consulting teachers are somewhat similar to roles of resource teachers (Dunn, 1968). The consulting teachers described here differ from resource teachers in that consulting teachers have no direct classroom responsibilities. That is, they do not bring a handicapped child into their classroom for diagnosis and educational programming and then return him to his original classroom with diagnosis and appropriate techniques and materials to assist the child's original teacher. Diagnosis and remediation procedures are undertaken by the child's teacher in his own classroom, with the help of the consulting teacher. (McKenzie, Egner, Knight, Perelman, Schneider, and Garvin, 1970: p. 142)

A similar program was developed by Robert Prouty and Douglas Prillaman in 1966-67 at the George Washington University.

> The Diagnostic Prescriptive Teacher (DPT) is a specifically trained, school-based, special educator, He/she serves as an educational diagnostician-consultant to regular class teachers in the development of appropriate instructional and socialization experiences for children who are viewed as posing problems in learning and/or behavior. (Prouty and McGarry, 1973: p. 47)
>
> The basic viewpoint of the DPT program is that education and special education, as now constituted, share a common responsibility to ensure the optimal educational experience for every child. In order to carry out this responsibility the capacity of regular class teachers to provide successfully for a diversity of children's needs must be improved. The expansion of teacher abilities requires the on-site consultative services of a specialist-teacher who can function with humanistic concern for both teachers and children and who possesses the necessary knowledge and

> skills to facilitate positive change in the classroom through the realistic assessment of each child's needs and strengths and each teacher's capabilities and resources. (p. 48)

The Prouty program included in its scope of concern the reduction or elimination of special class placement for EMR children and the return of children from EMR classes to regular classrooms (Prouty and McGarry, 1973).

> One further role of the DPT should be noted. Frequently, it has been possible to return children from special education to regular classes. Such "Phasing-in" must be done with care, on an individual basis, and with adequate follow-up service. The arbitrary return of numbers of children from special to regular classes by administrative decree without careful planning and preparation is not recommended in the DPT program in any case. ...if the child is viewed as having good potential for successful placement in a regular class that is responsive to individual differences, the DPT identifies a regular class teacher who is sensitive to the problem and then, with the referring special-class teacher, he develops a timetable and strategy for preparation and reassignment. (p. 51)

While the McKenzie model did not emphasize return to regular classes, its effect would also be a reduction of EMR classes over time since there would be fewer new admissions (McKenzie, et al., 1970).

In 1968 at least one-third of the profession was involved in either the direct instruction of EMR classes or in the preparation or supervision of such professionals (Dunn, 1968). Lloyd Dunn's recommendation of a moratorium on the proliferation of self-contained classes, the expected effect of models such as those reported by McKenzie

and Prouty, and relatively clear signs about the directions of the courts regarding the rights of children (Ross, DeYoung, and Cohen, 1971) combined to turn the world of these special education professionals on end.

A developing ideological split within the profession was cogently discussed by Evelyn Deno in "Special Education as Developmental Capital" in 1970.

> One army of special educators is committed to the point of view that education's mode of address must change drastically from its present forms if the precious uniqueness of each child's humanity is to be cherished. They believe that not only must regular education practices change but that even the structures of special education's major professional organizations must change. The viewpoint must switch from the present fix on pathology, which points the accusing finger of cause at the child, to approaches which emphasize the fact that the problem is not in the child but in the mismatch which exists between the child's needs and the opportunities we make available to nurture his self-realization. These professionals deplore the proliferation of disability categories as a way of making better provision for children's needs. They are sure that the only meaningful category for educational purposes is the individual child.
>
> ...special educators who have fought long and hard to bring handicapped children out of institutions and the dark closets into more humane opportunities to participate in community life recognize the merit of the warning. They fear, however, that de-emphasis of children's disabling characteristics will diminish the well-springs of synpathy which feed financial support into services for children having special needs. Having had to travel a long, painful road, employing many special appeals to secure attention for children locked out of education's doors as administrators proceeded to allocate finite resources on the principles of the greatest good for the greatest number, many special educators fear what consequences might ensue from blurring the identity of special

> education's clientele. They remember how it was as they see how it is and are "gun shy." (p. 229)

She went on in the article to press for resolution of the extremes and proposed an inclusive model for delivery of services, the Deno Cascade (Figure 1).

In the Cascade, consultation could take place anywhere along a continuum of services, if the particular role or service included a consultative function. The consultation models already briefly discussed were primarily concerned with Levels I, II, and III. Deno's model and others that followed had the potential of providing a place for everyone, if the problem had been one solely of professional turf. However, a large part of the problem, a part that the special education leadership found impossible to defer for a consensual resolution because of the press of the courts, was the lack of appropriate educational setting for many of special education's clients. When this aspect was combined with evidence that once a child was placed in special education there was very little hope of return to regular education, dispite the remedial nature of the placement, change was overwhelmingly indicated (Abeson, Bolick, and Hass, 1975). While courts provided the impetus and the language, legislators provided the mandate with laws like Chapter 766 (Gilhool, 1975). Consultation assumed the function, not only of maintenance and support, but also of facilitating movement towards the most

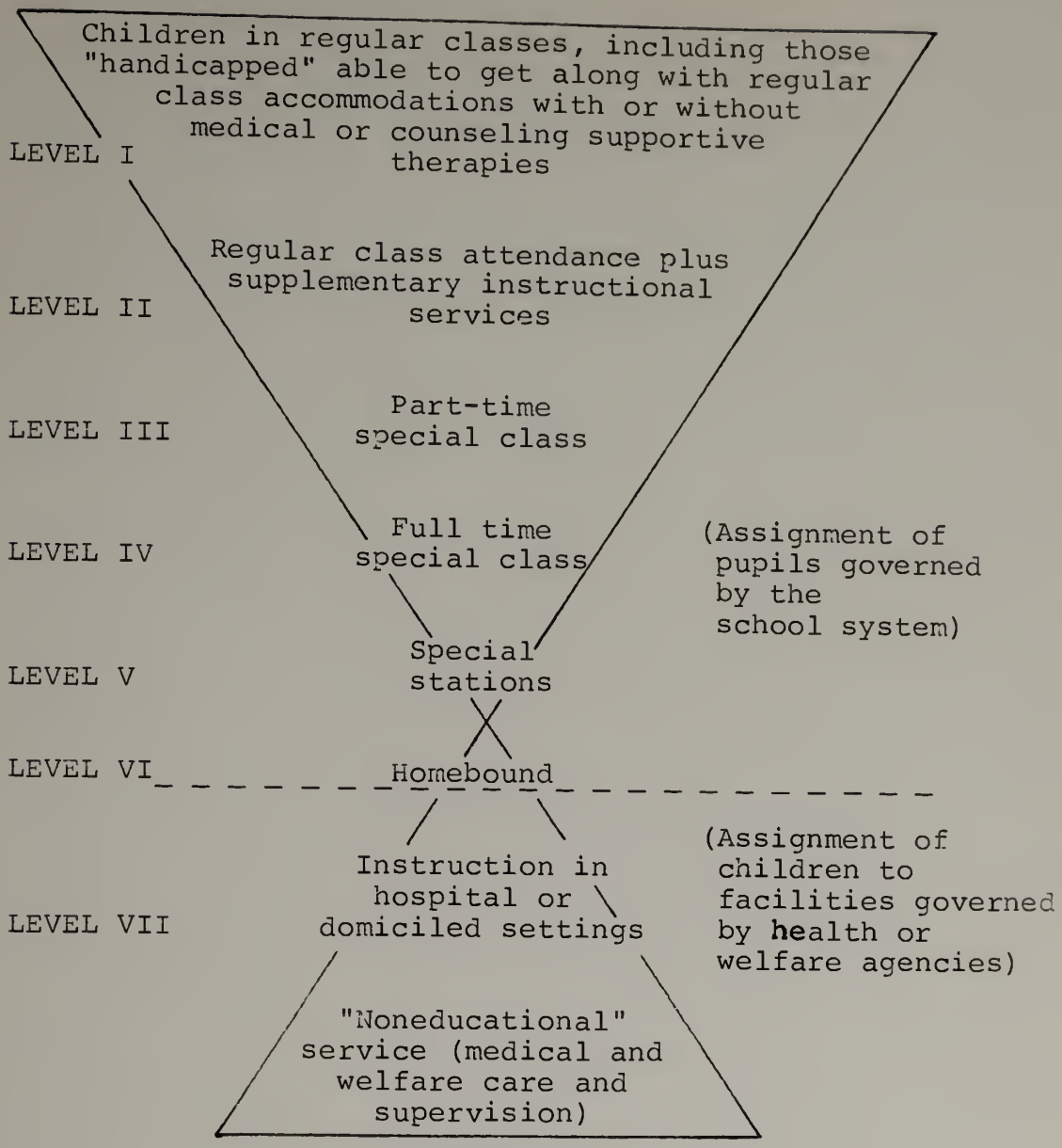

FIGURE 1: (The Deno Cascade) The cascade system of special education service. The tapered design indicates the considerable difference in the numbers involved at the different levels and calls attention to the fact that the system serves as a diagnostic filter. The most specialized facilities are likely to be needed by the fewest children on a long term basis. ...the cascade system is a system which facilitates tailoring of treatment to individual needs rather than a system for sorting out children so they will fit conditions designed according to group standards not necessarily suited for the particular case.(P235)

appropriate educational setting within the least restrictive environment. Many models containing a consultative function were proposed, developed and utilized by universities, school systems, and other educational institutions to bring about the reality required by the litigation and legislation of the late sixties and early seventies.

Some Considerations Concerning Model Development and the Consultative Role

Model development. A decade later, reflection upon the impact of university-based efforts suggested a need for reassessment. With some exceptions, many models developed or utilized by university-based professionals had burned out, apparently because the incorporated agenda or format for change was significantly inconsistent with the consumer school systems' desire for change. The experience of the university-based special education leadership has been that they have effectively contributed to change efforts only when they have been sensitive to the changes that school systems were prepared to embrace (i.e., when the systems themselves initiated and owned the proposed changes).

Where a model is to be applied, its design must be based on an understanding of the specific target group, in this case the schools, as well as the target group's milieu, the school systems. To be effective, model design

and implementation must occur in a context of awareness, communication and involvement. The awareness of university-based model designers must encompass the change agenda of the targeted school-based professionals as well as their own. These agendas should reflect a degree of mutual concern with any areas of agreement and disagreement being communicated. All interested parties must be identified and involved at some point in the conceptualization, design, and implementation of models which affect their professional or personal endeavors (Bijou, 1977).

A new model will only be interesting to and accepted by individuals who have some reason to believe that it will solve their problems better than what is currently in place. It will never be accepted by everybody in the target group. A model is most likely to be accepted initially by people exposed to it during their training and by those who are still "young" in spirit and openly searching for fresh approaches or solutions. Others will come to accept a model either through exposure (i.e., demonstrations, workshops, and conferences), or because they feel compelled to consider it due to court decisions, legislation, parental pressure, organizational endorsement, etc. (Prouty, 1973).

There will always be individuals who will resist, confront, or undermine a model because they are invested in

the status quo. The nature of that investment can range from job security to a well-reasoned conviction that the model in use is more appropriate than the proposed model. The precise nature of the resistance is important for the development of particular change strategies after a model is designed and implemented. The primary concern of model designers, however, should be to include potentially resistant individuals or groups in the planning stage of model design, as well as in the later phases of development. Significant numbers of model designers again and again operate with the assumption that established individuals, systems, or procedures can either be isolated and circumvented or forced to cooperate by the weight of circumstances (see Illustrative Case History A).

A further point about the sociology of models is that even if a model is accepted by a target population (school or school system), the individual model users cannot be expected to use the model complete with all the details of its design. The user can be expected to utilize the aspects of the model that do not conflict with existing regularities first, and those aspects that integrate with and somehow change existing practices without much trauma, second. Details of a model that could be expected to radically change procedures within a school tend to be resisted (Bijou, 1977).

The implications of this reality for model designers is that they must be willing to relinquish 1) ownership of a design, and 2) ego-investment in details of its application once it is implemented in a school. Maintaining ownership and requiring rigid application of details will both promote conflict and retard the development of ownership by the accepting school, which will diffuse whatever impact the model could have. History continues to dictate that "adherence to all or most aspects of a new model occurs only in situations designed for research and development such as is found in universities and research organizations" (Bijou, 1977, p. 7).

A final point about the sociology of models is that there seldom are new models. The better models that are developed usually incorporate the successful features of previous designs. Unfortunately, model designers rarely credit the complete history of effort and research which contributed to their model, and they rarely acknowledge similar efforts at model development that are currently taking place. Further, when they do acknowledge similar efforts, past or present, they tend to point to the differences in order to demonstrate the desirability of their own. This competition interferes with the collaboration that produces a new generation of models based upon the learnings of the past era.

A pertinent definition of consultation. "Consultation" is one of those elusive descriptors available for describing the activities of "consultants." It has been utilized as a synonym for team-teaching, counseling, training, reorganization, advice-giving, listening and providing clarifying feedback, etc. Such a lack of clarity can cause a consultation model to self-destruct, especially if the consultant has to perform conflicting functions or if the consultant activity invades the established territory of existing school personnel without their invitation or involvement. These conflicts or invasions can take place when the role of the consultant is sufficiently ill-defined that the implications of the activities are not foreseen and provided for in the design.

An additional difficulty caused by a lack of clear role definition is confusion about client-identification. The presumed object of most school activity and the stipulated reason for involvement of consultants is an improvement in the educational milieu. The expectation is that changes will take place that will benefit the child. Some consultant models stipulate that they are child advocacy roles while their consultation effort is focused on the teachers, the administrators, or the parents, usually based on the rationale that such effort will reach more children than effort focused on a single child. If the consultant's

client is the child, but the design requires that change effort be focused on an intermediary, there is potential for an ethical problem. If the consultant's client is the teacher but the consultant's concern is the child, in addition to problems of ethics, it could become difficult for the consultant to respond to the teacher with clarity and without bias. Finally, lack of clarity around the client can coopt the consultant into taking an active training or reorganizing role rather than assisting the client to initiate changes consistent with existing structures and concerns. This inevitably leads to programmatic breakdown because it causes the consultant and the client to be in competition, sometimes for survival.

The "Triadic Model of Consultation" formulated by Roland Tharp and Ralph Wetzel (1969) addresses many of the deficiencies discussed thus far. They proposed a consultative triad (Figure 2) where "the target is the person with the problematic behavior, ...the mediator is the person with the available means of social influence for effecting" positive change in that behavior, and "the consultant is the person with the knowledge to mobilize the mediator's influence" (Tharp, 1975: p. 138).

FIGURE 2 (The Triadic Model of Consultation)

While the consultant may have the ultimate goal of changing the target's behavior, there is only one route to that goal and that is through mediator change. The consultant's means to influence mediator change is the same as the mediator's means to influence target change. Tharp (1975) limits the list of means to--reinforcement, modeling, instruction, feedback, and cognitive restructuring.

This model brings clarity to the problem of client-identification. The consultant's client is the mediator and only the mediator. The consultant and the mediator may agree on goals for the target, in fact contractual negotiations should be expected in continue until there is such an agreement; but the mediator alone acts on the target. In addition to the agreement on goals for the target, the consultant and client make two other agreements: the consultant agrees to help the mediator by trying to influence his/her behavior, and the mediator agrees to attempt to be receptive to such efforts.

Two illustrative case histories. Some of the critical points mentioned concerning model development and definition of the consultative role and the relationship of these

concepts to the culture of school systems can be illustrated by examination of two contrasting case histories.

A. The Houston Plan. The Houston Plan was the reorganization of the "Houston Independent School District Special Education and Psychological Services" into the "Center for Human Resources Development and Educational Renewal" that took place in early 1972. This reorganization, led by Charles Meisgeier, Special Education Director, was in response to pressure from the State Department of Education in the form of Plan A, a Texas state law similar to Chapter 766 in Massachusetts. Plan A required the elimination of separate self-contained special education classrooms for the mildly retarded where such elimination was practical and possible.

In a monumental attempt to respond to that mandate the Special Education Division of Houston reorganized its own administration, replaced 350 self-contained special classes with approximately 90 resource centers, and designed and implemented "training content on individualized instruction for a) Special Education/Psychological Support Services staff; b) regular education elementary teachers; and c) special education resource room teachers" during the 1972 summer vacation (Klinger, 1975): p. 97, underlining mine).

The plan was supported by the school board and superintendent.

As part of a panel presentation at a later date, two (2) consultants on staff, with central responsibility as plan architects, indicated that they espoused the view that "middle management was too entrenched and negotiation with them was considered to be a luxury which required too high an investment in terms of energy and hours" (p. 97). Middle management included the regular education division curriculum supervisors, a group that was not required to reorganize by Plan A and which was responsible for the in-service of regular education elementary teachers within the existing structure.

> All through that development the math and reading supervisors were very, very upset and perturbed because we were not consulting them. But we could not consult with them because, in the time that we had, we were training 36 teachers per week who were going out and were not getting any help from the regular education division. ...the supervisory staff in regular education didn't think that we knew what we were doing and, therefore, that we shouldn't be doing what they considered their job. When this curriculum began being used by a couple of thousand teachers, the regular education people were forced to find out what it was that many people were using and how to talk to them intelligently about it. So then, they came to us with a problem: "We don't know what this is or how it works; can you tell us?" And we said, "Of course." So now they're taking the ball. (Dollar, 1974: p. 87)

In August of 1974, a change in the school board, and decentralization of administrative program control to six area superintendents, "chopped off the head" of the Center for

Human Resources Development and Educational Renewal and forced the exit of "key" personnel, notably Klinger and Dollar (Klinger, 1975).

The Houston Plan was good and had demonstrated success. "A survey of (50,000) participants conducted by the Houston Independent School District concluded that the Houston Plan was the best or top-ranked program" in the district (Parker, 1975: p. 102). Later evidence suggests that "middle management" didn't need to "kill" the plan, but to "own" their part of it. Some of the provisions of the plan were retained, and some training centers were restored in two areas after "the enforced resignations of two of the Plan's architects" (p. 102).

B. The engineered classroom. Frank Hewett introduced his "Engineered Classroom Model" to the Santa Monica School District in 1965. The engineered classroom was designed to accommodate "Emotionally Handicapped" (EH) children and to shape their behavior into more socially acceptable forms via principles of behavior modification with the intention of returning the children to the regular classroom. EH is a California category which includes both emotional disturbance and some learning disability. In Hewett's model the teacher was considered the behavioral engineer, defining tasks, providing rewards, and maintaining limits in hope of eliminating maladaptive behavior.

The classroom was divided into three major centers (exploratory, mastery, and order) which were designed to teach the hierarchy of skills that the student needed in order to return to the regular classroom (Hewett, 1967).

A year later, 1966, the special education division of the Santa Monica School District was in the process of developing the Madison School Plan. This plan was designed to eliminate the "locking-in" effect, i.e., children being placed in special classrooms and left there for their entire school experience, by providing a systematic process for reintegration into the regular classroom. The model for that process was Hewett's engineered classroom.

In addition, in 1966, Santa Monica began utilizing a unique policy of compulsory reintegration of EMR and EH children. Special class rosters were destroyed in the summer and the following fall most of the children were placed on regular classroom rolls. The Madison School Plan also established placements that were "graded," i.e., different levels or stages, according to individual child readiness to participate in regular classroom activities. This continuum resembles the Deno Cascade with consultation taking the form of helpful and supportive communication across the gradations as the child moves flexibly from one level to another until return to the regular classroom is achieved (Taylor, Artuso, Soloway, Hewett, Quay, and

Stillwell, 1972). Santa Monica's experience since 1966 has been that 33% of previously labeled EMR and EH children were not referred again during the fall semester (Taylor and Soloway, 1973).

The aspect of the Engineering Classroom Model that has particular significance is the transfer of ownership dynamic. The extent to which Frank Hewett collaborated with the Santa Monica School District in the development of his model, which basically served EH children, is not clear; but the transfer of purpose and leadership which occurred as the model was incorporated into the Madison School Plan can be extrapolated from published articles (Deno, 1973: p. 155). The Hewett Model moved from an external, independent experiment to an internal, integrated service, an integral part of a continuum of public school services.

Models Developed by University-Based Professionals

There have been a large number of models developed at universities, not as panaceas but as possible partial solutions, during the period 1968 to the present. And there have been a greater number developed by school systems for reasons ranging from a clear vision of children's need to the avoidance of court suits from irate parents, or even in response to court suits won by irate parents.

The data on the efforts of schools systems is less published and that fact will be reflected in the number of university models discussed compared to models from school systems. The discussion of university models is restricted to a representative sample utilized by school systems and which function within Levels I and II on the Deno Cascade. Finally, the summative discussion of university models will be restricted to those models for which there is data subsequent to their initial presentation in the literature.

Models which function within the least restrictive Environment.

1. Diagnostic Prescriptive Teacher model. Robert Prouty's Diagnostic Prescriptive Teacher model was developed in collaboration with Douglas Prillamen (Supervisor of Special Education, Arlington Public Schools) in 1966-67 at the George Washington University. In this model the helping process begins when the regular teacher refers a child with learning or behavior problems to the DPT. The DPT then observes the child in the regular classroom environment, or wherever the problem is occurring; confers with the teacher to share information; has diagnostic sessions with a small group of students, including but not identifying the referred child; writes an educational prescription for the referred child; confers with the teacher to refine the prescription; demonstrates materials and

methods for the teacher; and does short-term followup providing support for the teacher as it is needed. The referring teacher is asked to write an evaluation of the help provided after approximately six weeks and followup support continues until all are satisfied with the child's progress.

This model was utilized in the design of many of the Generic Special Education Teacher Degree Programs being offered at various colleges and universities in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts and was influential in the development of the procedure followed in delivering appropriate programs to children under Chapter 766.

2. Consulting Teacher model. This model, which also was discussed earlier, is still utilized in Vermont and, like the DPT, had been a major influence on program design in Massachusetts. The operational format of this model is closer to the Triadic Model recommended by Tharp and Wetzel (1969) than that of any other model currently in use in the early seventies. Interestingly enough, while the Consulting Teacher Model had state department (Vermont) level support and dissemination characteristics, conversations with principals from some Vermont schools indicated feelings of irritation and disillusion with the model's ability to help. The single, most frequently repeated, complaint was that "They're never available when you want them." It

should be noted that this same complaint appeared to apply to all itinerant educational services and seemed specifically related to demographic circumstances.

3. Improved learning conditions model. The improved learning conditions for handicapped children in regular classrooms model developed by Norris Haring in 1968 at the University of Washington often spared students the stigma of being removed from regular classrooms by providing an itinerant resource teacher. This teacher consulted with regular class teachers and emphasized precision teaching techniques. The model allowed the resource teacher to utilize a resource room as well. A referral form was filled out by the regular classroom teacher. Then the resource teacher used precision teaching techniques to assess the student's level of functioning. Continuous evaluation allowed the teacher to alter unsuccessful methods before frustration and failure set in. This model was offered as an alternative to the self-contained special education classroom which "taught the regular classroom teacher nothing." The resource teacher worked closely with the regular teacher and sometimes with the parents (Haring, 1971).

4. Seward-University project. The Seward-University project was a cooperative model between the public schools and the local university to improve school services and

university training. It originated from an agreement between the Special Education Division of the Minneapolis Public Schools and the Department of Special Education at the University of Minnesota. The project was established at the Seward School in November 1971 (Deno and Gross, 1973).

> The special education program that is evolving might best be described as an individual program modification system. Its key resource is three Special Education Resource Teachers (SERTs) who develop and continuously evaluate program modifications for individual handicapped children. Although it is referred to as a resource system, it is not a resource room program. All efforts are made to individualize the child's program within the regular classroom; he is removed for tutoring or small-group activity in a separate resource room as little as possible. These efforts place a heavy burden on a SERT's interpersonal and resource management skills, since much of what a SERT must do requires cooperative planning and management. (Deno and Gross, 1973: p. 107)

Several features of the system strongly resemble features already discussed in previous models:

> 1. SERTs are much more heavily involved in the diagnostic process than teachers usually are, and for that reason they must have knowledge of psychological or medical diagnostic procedures and social work evaluations, and be skilled in formal and informal educational diagnoses.
>
> 2. Since the SERT coordinates the assessment of the child, marshalls resources, communicates with staff, and manages paraprofessionals, much more of her time must be reserved for these activities instead of for direct instruction. (This point is difficult to establish with both SERTs and their colleagues.)
>
> 3. Whenever necessary, responsibility for decisions is shared. However, only program modifications that involve separating the child from his regular classroom for more than one hour per day need to be reviewed and

recommended by the Building Special Services Team. (Since most individual program modifications do not require separation, red tape is reduced.)

4. SERTs are involved in direct instruction primarily during the assessment procedures and the development of an effective program modification. SERTs must be skilled in using alternative methods and materials to develop effective instructional programs.

5. The pressure is, and always should be, on turning over direct instruction and management of an effective program to the child, the regular classroom teacher, a peer, or a paraprofessional. Thus the SERT is free to develop additional effective individualizations instead of being restricted to a static caseload.

6. The progress of handicapped children is monitored by the SERTs. They are responsible for charting the progress of all handicapped children on a regular basis, whether or not they are directly instructing the children themselves. The program is committed to ensuring the children's success, not necessarily to directing instruction. Regular and continuous monitoring of progress is the basis for establishing this accountability. (p. 109)

Positive results of this program included the development of a close relationship and a sharing of resources between the University and the community school system. Education courses at the University were "reality-based" (i.e., they were the result of and relevant to a real elementary school environment). Teachers had the opportunity to participate in inservice programs taught, for the most part, at their work site. Finally, children's needs were met in a less restrictive and stigmatizing setting, the regular classroom (Deno and Gross, 1973).

5. Generic Consultant Teacher model. In 1973, Burrello, Tracy, and Schultz discussed what they believed would

be the emerging role of special education. While their discussion did not propose a model, their comparison between current conceptualizations and future possibilities provides a useful frame of reference. The following is from their Chart I.

Assumptions Guiding Present Educational Practice and Future Experimental Education

Sections	Present Assumptions	Future Assumptions
Consultation	A. Consultation from ancillary personnel, e.g., psychologist or social worker, is often not distinct from administrative and supervisory functions.	A. The role of ancillary personnel is not to be confused with supervisory or administrative activity and it is to independent of traditional incumbant roles.
	B. Consultation from ancillary personnel is designed to identify and place children into a limited range of educational programs.	B. The primary role of consultation is to provide feedback to teachers, children, parents and administrators regarding the quality and type of interaction involved.
	C. Consultation from ancillary personnel has become the sole criteria for decision making.	C. Ancillary personnel will assist in the operationalizational of the cognitive and affective domain in teacher-child and peer interactions to facilitate their natural growth.

> D. Ancillary personnel will participate primarily as consultants to parents and children in helping them identify needs and potential services to meet those needs.

(Burrello, Tracy, and Schults, 1973: p. 32)

Some of the emerging functions of Special Education would be:

> Development of consultation relationships leading to system self renewal. Regional or large local districts could, in cooperation with the university training programs begin to develop and maintain an outside-inside consultation relationship to personnel within the local school. Within this context, experimental education personnel are conceptualized as inside consultants, and university personnel are conceptualized as outside consultants.
>
> Development of a support system. A support system would be developed to sustain the intervention until it becomes either defunct within the system or incompatible with the criteria established in a model service delivery system. Once it has been determined within a local building or across the school system that a particular program regularity or behavior regularity is to be instituted, it would be the role of experimental education to staff these components until they become an integral part of the general education mainstream. Retraining general educational personnel to staff demonstrated innovations would then become the responsibility of the experimental education component. (p. 33)

These two functions also describe the parameters of a programmatic effort at the Special Education Program at the School of Education of the University of Massachusetts/ Amherst during 1974-1977. In 1974, a "Comprehensive In-Service Delivery Design" (CIDD) (Jackson, 1973) was

intended to establish Diagnostic Prescriptive Teachers, retrained teachers from within local school systems, while supporting the DPTs and the school systems from without by inservice efforts. The experience of that project enabled the director and principal investigator to attempt a similar effort in 1976. The Generic Consultant Teacher Model was a role designed to integrate direct service for crisis and remedial cases; support and consultation to teachers, children and parents; and coordination of school and community resources. The role was individually designed to integrate with existing services in the institutions. The personnel involved were expected to be teachers from within the systems involved who were retrained as school, institution, or system consultants. The university served as design consultant, credentialing agent and instructional resource, while the individual settings contributed design parameters and needs analyses. The university also provided outside consultants to respond to inservice needs of the systems.

Models which function as a supplementary instructional service. (All of these models were designed to include the use of regularly scheduled instruction in a separate environment, i.e., a part-time special class placement, if warranted by the child's need.)

1. The Helping Teacher/Crisis Teacher. In 1960, William Morse, consulting with a group of Garden City Public Schools elementary teachers, developed what was presented in 1962 as the Helping Teacher/Crisis Teacher concept (Lynch, 1975). This model was developed by teachers to meet their own needs (Morse, 1976) and it has continued to evolve and be utilized by the same school system through 1976.

The teachers who help develop the Morse model had strong feelings about the extent and nature of their need, and they stated those needs in the form of propositions.

a. "Even the very disturbed child is not all disturbed all the time" (Morse, 1976: p. 3). Most of the time the disturbed child can benefit from and fit into the regular class.

b. Consultation (by psychologists and the like) was all right, but what was needed was direct assistance.

c. The "help" should always be available.

d. "A repressive disciplinary approach does not work" (p. 3).

e. The direct service helping person should be school-based and be trained as a special teacher.

f. "There were times when the helping teacher could assist best by coming in and taking over the classroom while the

regular teacher worked through a phase of a problem with a youngster" (p. 3).

g. "Help should be based upon the reality of how the child was able to cope with the classroom" (p. 3), not labels or categories. Many normal children need help during a crisis in their lives.

> What these teachers asked for in essense was an over-group person who would deal with disturbance regardless of the manifestation. These teachers requested an educator, not a clinician, to give the emergency help when needed. There was even a willingness to each take an extra pupil or two in order to save the cost of the new type of special teacher. To have help available when it was needed was seen as the best total assistance. In 1961, the crisis/helping teacher became one method of delivery of special education services recognized by the state code. (p. 3)

The crisis teacher model was designed to give temporary, periodic help to troubled children only for the amount of time this help was needed. The crisis teacher had no regular class of her own. There was essentially no referral process. At most the student brought a note from his teacher stating the reason(s) he was sent. This allowed any child in a crisis immediate intervention. There had to be good ongoing communication between the crisis teacher and the rest of the school staff. The educational responsibility for the child remained with the regular classroom teacher. Discipline was viewed as a mental health concept rather than a punitive concept. The crisis teacher had to relate what he was doing in the crisis room

to what was happening in the child's regular classroom. In this sense the crisis teacher was a team teacher. The avoidance of expensive, extensive, diagnostic and referral services reduced the waiting period before the services could be rendered. The development of a pathological set of behavioral norms, a usual argument against self-contained special classes, was avoided in this model by the constantly changing population of students using the crisis room. This also allowed a large number of students to get services and reduced the likelihood that any student would become separated from his regular classroom group (Van Dyke, 1968).

2. The Fail-Save program. Gary Adamson and Glen VanEtten were stimulated to argue that Lilly's Zero-Reject Model must fail with some children, therefore they developed a model that saved those children. (The essence of Lilly's model was that if children began school in regular classes they could never be removed from regular classes.) Adamson and VanEtten's model emerged out of work they did at the Olathe, Kansas, Education Modulation Center, in collaboration with the Olathe Public Schools. They tackled "the problem (of) how to keep a child with special needs from becoming permanently trapped in a service plan that is either ineffective or outgrown" (VanEtten and Adamson, 1973: p. 156).

The Fail-Save Program utilized a Methods and Materials Consultant/Teacher (M&M) and progressed with the child through four phases: 1) Consultation, 2) Resource Room/ Regular Class, 3) Special Class/Resource Room, and 4) Alternative Placement (Adamson, 1970).

Phase I. Consultation.

> ...upon receipt of the referral, the M&M consults with the teacher and building principal, first, to gather additional data, and second, to arrange for a period of time in the classroom to observe the child's specific academic deficits and behavior problems. This observation period is part of the diagnostic process.

Diagnostic Procedures:

> The diagnostic process must accomplish the following five goals:
> 1. Determine that all of the child's sensory systems are intact.
> 2. Determine the child's best mode of learning.
> 3. Identify a motivation system.
> 4. Identify the child's specific academic and behavior problem. ...the role of the M&M is to separate the child's problem from the teacher's and parents' interpretation of it.
> 5. Identify academic skills deficits.

Consultation Procedures:

> After the B.E.S.I. has been administered and all other diagnostic procedures have been completed, the results are shared by the M&M with the teacher, parent and principal. The teacher is shown how the tests were given and instructed in the interpretation of the results. (Basic Education Skills Inventory is a diagnostic instrument developed by Adamson and VanEtten.)
>
> During the second and third weeks, the teacher and the M&M develop an educational prescription for the child. In this process, the regular class teacher is taught to use the Prescriptive Materials Retrieval

> System (PMRS) to identify rapidly and select appropriate instructional materials (PRMS was developed by Adamson and VanEtten.)
>
> Since the regular class teacher has been taught to use the PRMS and has been involved in the prescription-planning activities, she can often make the program changes unassisted. The teacher is also taught to use operant procedures to control social and educational aspects of the child's behavior.
>
> If the child does not respond as anticipated it may be necessary for the M&M to tutor him temporarily in order to gather more relevant data. This one-to-one tutoring ratio should be of very brief duration because the M&M must never assume the responsibility for the child's education; that belongs to the regular class teacher and she must be allowed and encouraged to retain it. (VanEtten and Adamson, 1973: pp. 159-161)

3. The Resource Specialist model. Joseph Jenkins and William Mayhall (1976) did not develop a model for services so much as describe the breadth of educational assistance available within programs staffed by "resource teachers." The resource specialist may work in a categorical, cross categorical or non-categorical resource program utilizing both direct and indirect services. The nature and severity of the disability generally determined the program of direct or indirect services. Direct services would involve the resource teacher in one-to-one or small group contact with the child while indirect services would consist of consultation with the classroom teacher.

Indirect services generally fall into the following five areas:

a. Identification of core tasks or behaviors.

Regular classroom teachers, when they refer a child for help, often describe the child in broad global terms. The resource teacher would usually begin by helping the teacher to define and describe the behaviors causing concern, e.g., this child refuses to complete math assignment that involves addition of numbers greater than three places.

b. Measurement of performance discrepancy.

The objective of the resource teacher is to reduce the discrepancy between the child's current performance and an acceptable performance level established by the classroom teacher. The resource teacher would help the referring teacher measure the child's performance over a couple of days and also help her consciously establish the criteria of acceptable behavior. This process brings the current performance level and the desired performance level into sharp focus for the teacher.

c. Production and implementation of an intervention program.

Interventions are generally of an instructional nature such as providing necessary school materials to the classroom teacher or helping her make changes in her teaching method.

d. Revision of the intervention program.

The classroom teacher continually monitors the progress of the child to determine if the prescribed program has reduced the discrepancy between actual behavior and desired behavior. The resource teacher continually helps her revise the program as necessary.

e. Consultation as needed.

Direct services usually parallel the indirect services already described, with the resource teacher taking full responsibility for all activities.

a. Identification of core tasks.

During the referral process the resource teacher determines the specific deficit areas in the child.

b. Assessment of performance of core tasks.

The resource teacher does an individual performance assessment of a range of tasks based on classroom curriculum. This phase seeks to determine specific strengths and weaknesses in academic areas.

c. Production and implementation of an intervention program.

The resource teacher designs an educational program sequenced to ensure continual success on the previously determined core tasks.

d. Provision of one-to-one instruction.

The purpose of providing one-to-one instruction is to guarantee the child the highest degree of individual attention. This is necessary because

> any performance discrepancy serious enough to warrant direct services from a resource specialist is serious enough to warrant the strongest instructional arrangement known, individualized one-to-one instruction. ...referred children have already demonstrated that they do not progress satisfactorily under group instruction. (p. 24)

e. Instruction is data based.

> Examination of charted performance permits the teacher to determine if desired performance changes are occurring, to estimate when an objective will be met, and ascertain that a performance has reached criterion. (p. 24)

Discussion of university-based models. These university-based models were developed to integrate or maintain children labeled retarded, emotionally disturbed, learning disabled, etc., in the mainstream of society, i.e., the regular classroom of a school. Since the 1940s reintegration had been the assumed goal of special education; but as Dunn (1968) and Judge Wright (Hobson vs Hansen, 1967) have indicated, once children were placed in special programs, movement within the system tended to stop. These models attempted to formalize or institutionalize movement towards the least restrictive environment. The history and utilization of most of them, however, has been under reported. Obstacles to utilization created internally (poor design and definition) and externally (funding and politics)

seem to have visibly decimated the existence and effect of the efforts described above with some informative exceptions.

One external obstacle was the investment of such a large number of the profession in the status quo. There were many professionals who believed that separate, self-contained classrooms had educational value and had achieved success. The research results have always been mixed, with indications that while children in self-contained classrooms usually do not acquire greater skills in academic areas, neither do they acquire less (Blatt, 1960; Christoplos and Renz, 1969). Many special educators feared that deemphasizing the disabling characteristics of special education's clientele might "diminish the wellsprings of sympathy which feed financial support into services for children having special needs" (Deno, 1970: p. 229).

A second external obstacle to implementation of these models was a natural competition among new models for support and funds. Presentations of these efforts emphasized the unique nature of the program. There had been less incentive to evaluate, compare, and relate projects. Thus, the "army of special educators" (p. 229) committed to the view that "education's mode of address must change drastically from its present forms if the precious uniqueness of

each child's humanity is to be cherished" (p. 229), was divided.

A third external obstacle was the resistance of teachers and school systems to accept help from a person they viewed as an administratively-imposed, outside expert. The fact that some of these programs were established at universities for the express purpose of effecting change in schools or institutions put them in that untenable position (Sarason, 1971). The difficulty of this position may be illustrated by discussing the history of some of the models already described. In the Prouty model, for instance, the intent was that the training sequence stress a slow, strategic evolution and acceptance of the DPT model within a school environment. However, the practical effect of transplanting the design to new locations without local, internal discussions and needs identification sometimes led to a perception of the DPT as an administratively-imposed, external expert. There are aspects of the particular "consultant" process built into this design and the others like it which lend themselves to that interpretation. While the regular classroom teacher made the initial referral and, optimally, remained involved in the process of prescription (Prouty and McGarry, 1973), inevitably in practice, the DPT took over the initiative. The DPT developed the prescription (usually changes in classroom

design, materials or teaching style) and then attempted to transfer ownership of the plan to the teacher in a supportive context, slowly and sensitively withdrawing as the teacher took back the initiative. Usually the DPT assumed leadership with a problem-solving orientation because it was easier to search for solutions unburdened by weeks or months of frustration over a problem. Yet, it was precisely those conditions, which allowed the DPT to be helpful, which simultaneously caused a person in this role to be viewed as an outsider.

As in the DPT model, the consultative process of the Fail-Save model was such that the M&M could be perceived as an outside expert utilizing externally developed procedures to act on internal inadequacy. Rather than gathering assessment data cooperatively with the assistance of the classroom teacher, the M&M shared it with her at the end of the process. Then the M&M instructed the teacher in test interpretation, computer procedures and operant conditioning, the need for which had been established without the teacher's involvement (VanEtten and Adamson, 1973). Consultation, in the classic sense, follows the needs of the client, identified by the client (Tharp, 1975). Here, the focus was the client's student, and the consultant response seems to be the design of the proper suit of clothes, which the regular teacher then puts on.

> The primary purpose of the observations is to understand the methods and materials the teacher is using with her children in order to be able to provide suggestions for change and to design programs that fit into the teacher's modus operandi. (VanEtten and Adamson, 1973: p. 160)

The negative impact of this external process has sometimes been diffused by occasional team teaching efforts where the consultant received as well as provided assistance, establishing credibility with teachers in areas outside of the consultation efforts.

A fourth obstacle was that these designs often caused significant trauma to existing structures for referral and placement of children. If psychologists had previously had responsibility for evaluation, identification and placement of children referred by teachers as needing help, establishing an alternative design had mixed reviews. While a consultant whose goal was to assist teachers to modify instructional practices to accommodate and retain a greater variety of children did not appear to be in direct conflict with a psychometrist and placement specialist, the more children accommodated in the classroom translates into less children referred for measurement or placement elsewhere. Other roles must now be redefined or eliminated.

Not all the university-based models have been viewed as outsiders by participating school systems. For instance, Morse's Helping Teacher/Crisis Teacher grew into a different though internally consistent form and was

utilized by school systems. One fact of development that contributed to the utilization of this model was the extent of local school system participation in its design. The Helping Teacher/Crisis Teacher was the result of a teacher workshop where teachers described the kind of help they needed and how it could best be provided. This kind of participation in model design appeared to save the consultant from being perceived as an outside expert. When, in addition, the Helping Teacher tended to function as a participant more often than as a program initiator (because of design), in contrast to the DPT and M&M just discussed, possible reasons for the greater acceptance of this model become clear.

Examples of School Systems' Approaches to Program Development

A presentation of university-based models, which are to differing degrees rigid formalizations of workable procedures, could be considered a misrepresentation of what was happening in the field of special education. The consultative function of "special" as well as "regular" educators began with sharing information and skills in response to requests for help from professional peers. The effectiveness of this interaction often led to a semi-formalization of this aspects of a teacher's role, with the teacher involved unconsciously or consciously strategizing

to expand "effective learning situations" for children and "effective teaching situations" for adults with greater or less depth and breadth of administrative support.

For the last couple of years such efforts have found support within systems from unexpected directions. It is risky business for an individual teacher to redefine her behaviors and role in ways that are visibly different from existing system expectations held for a resource teacher. In usual cases expectations have been that scheduled children, alone or in small groups, would be reporting to the resource room all day long. Recently teachers' efforts at change have found support because

> a number of factors are inexorably moving all school districts in the country toward some degree of mainstreaming. In general, the factors can be subsumed under the headings of the increased adaptability of special education, the trend toward individualization of education, the demands of parents, judicial interpretations, and rising costs of public school operations. Equally important is the fact that mainstreaming may prove to be a way to provide better education for most children through a more efficient use of school facilities and personnel (Reynolds, 1974: p. iii).

Programs developed by school systems.

1. Tacoma, Washington. In 1958, after lengthy discussions involving parents, regular and special education teachers, and administrators, the Tacoma Board of Education adopted the "Tacoma-Pierce County Cooperative Study."

> Decentralization provisions for exceptional children should be made in the public schools. ...exceptional

> children need to live and learn with others; separate facilities make this difficult. Our educational philosophy and practice are calling for an education together rather than apart.
>
> It must be observed that some children,..., need separate and different educational facilities. But even these facilities should have easy access to regular classrooms and children.
>
> Many classes for exceptional children will provide distinct advantages for the pupils if the classes can be located within a complex of schools. ...progressive inclusion in regular classes at various levels can be accomplished more easily in such a complex. (p. 145)

In 1961, Tacoma had thirty (30) self-contained special education classrooms for the mildly retarded. There were none that fit that description in 1972. The school principals were considered central factors in this development, as they assumed responsibility for all programs and flexible interaction between regular and special education. It was not expected in 1961 that all teachers, regular and special, would be ready for mainstreaming; so existing staff provided inservice training which led to professional credit and salary increments, and was designed as support for the teachers. Special education teachers were expected to consult with regular class teachers on any learning or adjustment problem of concern to the teacher. Mini-courses were designed to help special education teachers gain skill in giving such technical assistance (Birch, 1974).

The local teacher association supported the progressive inclusion philosophy and even stipulated items in the

Professional Agreements concerning staff development that were attributed to have contributed to the concept's success. These included consultant and materials assistance for staff involved in curriculum innovations and change, and workshops and classes to help staff become more aware of the needs of the individual learner and to acquaint them with teaching-learning approaches which would be responsive to those needs (Tacoma Public Schools, 1974).

2. Richardson, Texas. The school officials of Richardson, Texas, a Dallas suburb also used decentralization combined with an integrative process as central concepts for a reorganization attempt which began in 1968-1969. Initially the roles of principals in the special education system were redefined. In the past principals had regarded the special education department as renting space in the building and operating a program unrelated to the rest of the school. Now principals had control of resources and responsibility for the arrangement of educational programs for all pupils, with or without handicap. Translated into real terms, the principal would be allocated a specific number of special education teacher units and then he, in consultation with school personnel, would decide on the qualification desired in the staff to fill those positions (i.e., speech therapist, counselor, DPT, etc.) (Zawadski, 1973; Birch, 1974).

The reorganization movement in Richardson came from the top down. Feeling pressures from both inflexible placement practices which prevented needed individualized instruction, and the soon to be implemented statewide Plan A*, the Director and his staff sought to maintain local control, and to help children through a blend of the talents of regular and special teachers.

> *(Plan A was the regulations for establishing a statewide inclusion policy "spelled out in an amendment to article 2922-13, Section 1, subsec. (4) a (Vernon's Texas Civil Statutes) which was passed by the 61st Texas legislature in 1969. Under these new laws, all school districts in Texas must operate under Plan A by 1976. Essentially, Plan A has two major features: (a) the provision of comprehensive services for exceptional children beyond those that have been provided in the past, and (b) the creation of a number of new alternatives to meet the needs of exceptional children (as opposed to the self-contained, special education classroom, the major option under the old system). Schools are given the opportunity to develop comprehensive services for exceptional children, including their integration into the mainstream of school life. To provide these additional services, school districts are funded for teachers, supportive personnel, and materials according to the needs of the total student enrollment, rather than on the basis of identifying and labeling children before any services can be made available." (Deno, 1973: p. 136)

Yet while the incentive and pressure was felt most acutely at central administrative levels, the process or reorganization itself was almost the reverse. Parents, some who had experienced frustration in the past when their children had been in regular classes, met with administrators on five (5) separate occasions to work out their major concerns. The basic tenet was extablished that only

those pupils who were expected to profit from mainstreaming would be returned to the regular class with supportive services. Regular classroom teachers seemed willing to try mainstreaming but approximately twenty-five percent of the EMR self-contained classroom teachers were resistant to the concept (Zawadski, 1973). Teachers and parents who expressed reluctance were not pressured and over the years acceptance has grown and satisfactory adjustments have been made for resistant teachers (Birch, 1974).

The range of reorganization that began in 1969 differed from school to school, or more accurately, from principal to principal. The principals were not expected to achieve integration at the same rate, and they were provided continuous support in the form of inservice and technical assistance from the central office. Concurrent with the decision to integrate, the school system had secured a five-year contract with a local university. The purpose of the resulting "Instructional Leadership Institute" was to acquaint the entire administrative staff with basic special education concepts (i.e., individual differences in learning potential, personal and social effects of handicaps, assessments, curricular modifications, adapting instructional material, and appropriate expectations for specialists). Since schools (principals) proceeded with integration at different rates, individualized

inservice programs for specific schools were held monthly, in addition to the summer inservice which all administrators attended.

A few principals began to distribute all identified "EMR" pupils among regular homerooms during the 1970-1971 school year (Zawadski, 1973). All regular teachers were advised they could get help from the special teachers, even up to 90% time out for some kids, but all children were integrated at least part of the school day and the regular teacher was programmatically responsible. By 1974, this approach was in general use in the school system (Birch, 1974).

One of the areas the schools did have in common the first crucial year of integration, 1969-1970, was the establishment of an Admissions, Review and Dismissal Committee (ARD Committee). This was required by the statewide Plan A. This committee served the same function and operated similar to Core Evaluation Teams in Massachusetts, but usually were composed of local school personnel and, after 1972, included parents. The schools also adopted four (4) instructional arrangements in 1969 where they had previously had one (self-contained special education classrooms). Arranged in a segregated to integrated continuum the new programs were 1) self-contained, 2) partially integrated with the special education teacher responsible for

the curriculum, 3) resource program with the regular education teacher responsible for the curriculum, and 4) consulting teacher working as a team with the regular teacher as needed. In 1969 integration was being introduced for discussion and there were twenty-six (26) self-contained special education classrooms for about 260 students. By 1973 there were no self-contained classrooms and only twenty (20) students who spent ninety percent of their day with the resource teacher who also taught other students (Zawadski, 1973).

The mainstreaming concept was extended to the central administrative offices as well. In 1969 Special Education was a completely separate autonomous unit as were regular school programs. There had been few occasions of interaction. Parallel services had been developed, i.e., counselors for the handicapped were different than counselors for other children. The merger that was expected to take place in the schools was to be coordinated by two (2) groups in the throes of territorial upheaval. This problem was creatively alleviated by a reorganization of responsibility that placed the Director of Special Education on the same level as the Director of Curriculum, with the job descriptions requiring a mutual interdependency and responsibility for the integration of special and regular education. The success of that move was reflected in the fact that by the end of 1973, ninety percent plus of

previously labeled "EMR" students were integrated the majority of their school day (Zawadski, 1973).

3. Plano, Texas. Plano, Texas is also a Dallas suburb, subject to most of the pressures experienced by Richardson, including, in 1967, impending changes mandated by Plan A. The history and the nature of the results are quite similar, but the process of integration proceeded quite differently. Like the majority of large school systems, the sixties had been for Plano and era of expanding services and categories (labels). In 1967-1968, special education in Plano had acquired a new division of instruction--minimal brain injury. The superintendent, perhaps conscious of what was coming in Plan A, required that special education not develop additional self-contained classrooms, but develop assistance for these children through a resource room concept with the children based in regular classrooms. This appeared to succeed and the Director of Special Education, together with a regular education team leader and an interested "EMR" teacher, opted to try the same sort of integration with a single "EMR" class in the 1968-1969 school year. This decision was discussed with the parents of the children involved. The parents' reaction ranged from compliance to strong interest in an alternative to their child keeping the "EMR" label that had been acquired.

This experimental integration was taking place at the elementary level, where Plano had team teaching across the board. The fifteen (15) children and their teacher joined an existing team that was age appropriate. The special education teacher almost immediately acquired the additional responsibility of planning for all the low-functioning children, with the clear expectation that she alone would take small groups of "EMRs" and other children with similar problems into a separate room or space for small group work. But that expectation and procedure gradually disappeared as the special education teacher became the art teacher for the whole team, participated in the social studies planning and introduced peer tutoring.

That year, 1968-1969, in addition to that integrated class, there were ten (10) "EMR" and "TMR" self-contained classrooms in the Plano elementary schools. At the end of the 1972-1973 school year all the special education students were receiving individualized instruction, all special education teachers had become members of teams, and regular class teachers had become used to dealing with all sorts of pupils in an integrated setting. Responsibility for identifying and coordinating the program of mildly handicapped pupils had remained with special education teachers, even through the children themselves entered

first grade with all other children and remained regular class pupils.

The Plano system provided for twelve (12) credit hours of professional courses a year as a supportive framework for their integrative effort. College and university faculty involved were required to design the courses to meet the articulated needs of local teachers and to use local staff as instructors where possible. The system took this tack because they had not found college courses attuned to their working concepts (Zawadski, 1973; Birch, 1974).

4. Tucson, Arizona. Tucson had begun some informal integration at the grassroots level in 1968 when a few teachers at the elementary level helped each other out. Regular teachers worked with more able "handicapped" children and special teachers worked with less able "regular kids." The administrative levels gave these informal efforts a real shot in the arm when they felt pressured to respond to questions posed by HEW about the apparent disproportions of blacks, Mexican-Americans and Indians in the "EMR" self-contained classes. A comparative count of pupils demonstrated the reality if not the intention of segregation, and over a three (3) year period, 1970-1973, the number of self-contained, "EMR" classes was reduced from twenty (20) to three (3). During the same time the

number of students provided with special education went up approximately seventy-five percent (Birch, 1974).

The process of change was similar to what has already been described. While reorganizing special education, renaming it Adaptive Education, both regular and special education teachers were provided inservice to prepare and assist them as they changed their roles. Regular teachers were found to be supportive, at least at a minimal level, as long as they were given help, and an exchange system was worked out. Special education teachers were assigned to schools in resource rooms on the ratio of one teacher for every fifteen (15) "EMR" students identified. In every instance where an "EMR" student was working with a regular teacher, a regular pupil having difficulty was being helped by the special education teacher (Tucson Public Schools, 1970; Ganoung, 1971).

Other processes similar to what has already been described are that 1) parents were kept informed and relatively involved, 2) psychological tests became somewhat discounted, and 3) principals became central to the organizational structure. By 1974, ninety-five percent of identified "EMR" pupils were integrated for two-thirds or more of the school day (Birch, 1974).

5. Kanawha County, West Virginia. The school population of Kanawha County, West Virginia, ranged from poverty-

stricken Appalachian mountain-folk to "urban" residents of Charleston. Feeling that special education could be more useful to such diverse clients than it was being as an expanding autonomous unit, the central administration and the board of education endorsed and accepted a special education reorganization effort in 1972. This effort aimed at changing the basis of special education from separation to integration at all levels, administrative through classroom. The first move was a restatement of local principal autonomy combined with the proffering of inservice to interested principals and teachers and a continuously articulated commitment to the principle of inclusion (Kanawha County Schools, 1972).

Of the twenty-eight (28) "EMR" classrooms at the elementary level, thirteen (13) were self-selected to initiate a change over to mainstreaming the 1971-1972 school year. This decision was made mutually by the principals, local school education staff, and central office. A significant number of those selected had already achieved a certain degree of integration. The central office introduced a process model for achieving integration, but not an integration model itself. That was left to the individual schools. It was, reportedly, clear to the principals involved that by midyear integration was going well, i.e., special education teachers and regular teachers were

communicating well and were planning together for individualized instruction for identified children. The "planners" were optimistic about expanding the program to the whole system, and towards the end of the school year the remaining elementary schools and several junior highs were notified that they would be included the following school year (Kanawha County Schools, 1972).

The differences between the self-selected schools and the remaining schools were not overlooked and "internal in-service" was designed and implemented. Both principals and teachers who had had success with including "EMR" pupils in regular programs were paired with other teachers and principals to share experiences. Principals formed problem-solving groups, each group containing at least one principal who was a mainstreaming veteran and they role-played, brainstormed, and hashed out possible problems and potential solutions. Teachers who had used individualized instruction and flexible scheduling helped other teachers. Special education teachers exchanged ideas on various integration patterns, i.e., cross grouping, team teaching, diagnostic prescriptive teaching, consulting strategies, involvement strategies such as involving "EMR" kids first in high interest clubs, then in academics, etc., so each school would have a repertoire of techniques from which to choose (Birch, 1974).

To the date of reporting, integration at the elementary level had only been hampered by the small size of some mountain schools which made support staff based in those schools unfeasible. All identified mildly handicapped children are integrated, although those from small communities may go to a central school large enough for support staff. The county's goal was to have all children in their local school. At the secondary level all students report to regular homerooms and take academic subjects at their level of competence. Kanawha County reports more children served under this reorganized effort for the same financial investment formerly expended on segregated classes (Birch, 1974).

Summary of programs developed by school systems. Several common factors can be isolated from the experiences of these school systems. First, the concerns of teachers, principals, parents, other administrators as well as the targeted students need to be considered at the baseline of the planning stage and those groups need to be involved thereafter. However, this does not appear to mean that these groups need to be involved and consulted at every junction of the planning process nor that every detail be hashed out and resolved by all parties. Second, specific inservice in response to local and stated need is an absolute requirement. The systems were usually unable or

unwilling to use prepackaged university instruction or models, and conversely, were most responsive to local assistance from successful peers. Third, central administration needs to be clear, consistent, supportive, and provide leadership without interference. Policies, such as placement of all pupils in regular classes, need to be articulated and rearticulated, emanating from supervisors and superintendents alike with a consistent message. Fourth, the local school, functioning as an autonomous unit, can best determine its needs, the most appropriate responses to its problems, and the most efficient use of its energies. Consistently, informal tests and observations, information sharing, and brainstorming by local school personnel were felt to be most useful in programmatic development for children.

Conclusion

The implications of the experiences of the school systems and the recent history of the use of consultant models in the field of special education suggested some directions for training programs. The resources of colleges and universities may best be invested, and the concern of university-based professionals for effecting change may best be addressed by equipping their students with expertise consistent with the highest state of the art, in order

that they may later contribute effectively to change efforts from within target institutions. A university-based change effort that requires the utilization of a university-designed model has been and will continue to be thwarted from at least two directions. First, a school system can be expected to react with resistance to a model designed by "outsiders," and second, the universal application of a model's design for providing service is inconsistent with the concept of local principal autonomy which appears to be necessary for efficient and effective use of resources.

School systems have "accepted" change in their organizational patterns because of legal, financial and political pressures to do so. A good deal of that kind of pressure was generated by the model designers of the late 1960s and early 1970s: by their persuasiveness in the literature; by their efforts as expert witnesses and friends of the court in cases involving children's rights and education; and by their leadership in lobbying efforts in legislatures. These efforts produced the present which is a different time. Conditions which support mainstreaming and reintegration have been legislated and litigated and have achieved a certain degree of tenure if not acceptance. Continued support would be enhanced by research and

critical evaluation of the impact of those concepts upon the lives and educational milieu of the handicapped.

Among the factors which contributed to the effective utilization of models and processes for the mainstreaming of special needs children highlighted in the literature above, several stand out. They are collaboration, definition, and administrative support. Successful models, whether based in universities or school systems, were sufficiently defined that the nature and scope of the application of the individual model was clear. All interested and invested parties, that could be identified, were involved in the development and implementation of the model. Finally, the administrative support for the model was consistent and clear, particularly at the point of greatest stress or incentive for applied change, i.e., the local school.

Here again, it is useful to note that despite the fact that the Division of Special Education was acting on good information about what was needed and with thoughtful application of the means to bring a new role upon the special education scene, the above components had only haphazard consideration. Membership on task forces to plan and design for this change did not include local school system representation. The nature and depth of collaboration with local systems was not a part of the program

audit, which was the major means of state influence of program behavior. And in many instances, the training institutions had started designing a program or preparing students before local school systems knew what the state-defined generic special teacher was. The style of the state in collaboration with institutions was almost a study in contrasts with what could be expected to work.

C H A P T E R III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to determine 1) whether people trained in Massachusetts as generic special educators are in fact being employed in Massachusetts public schools to function in the roles for which they were trained; 2) does the employment pattern reflect differences among training programs or differences among local school systems; 3) can any differences be linked to hypothesized contributing factors: a) collaboration between training programs and school systems, b) definition of the generic role by training programs, c) funding of training programs, d) creation of new special education positions within school systems, and e) locus of administrative support of the generic role within school systems; and 4) are these graduates filling any other particular professional role.

Research focused on the generic training programs approved by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts and on the graduates of those programs. Data were collected through interviews structured by questionnaires. Two (2)

questionnaires had been developed in order to elicit the relevant data. The Program Questionnaire was used during a program interview (i.e., an interview with the faculty member identified as responsible for the development and implementation of a generic program). The Graduate Questionnaire was used during a graduate interview (i.e., an interview with a graduate of a generic program).

The Survey Population--The Institutions

Each of nine (9) colleges and the state university had graduated a generic teacher in time for the graduate to be employed in the role during the 1977-1978 school year.

American International College
Boston College
Boston State College
Fitchburg State College
Framingham State College
Lesley College
Regis College
Simmons College
University of Massachusetts/Amherst
Worcester State College

Since one institution had four (4) distinct generic programs, the total number of programs to be surveyed was thirteen (13).

Initially fourteen (14) institutions were identified as having indicated to the Division of Special Education that they had or would be establishing generic programs. They were

American International College
Assumption College
Boston College
Boston State College
Boston University
Bridgewater State College
Fitchburg State College
Framingham State College
Lesley College
Massachusetts College of Art
Simmons College
University of Massachusetts/Amherst
Worcester State College.

By the time research was initiated on April 1, 1978, however, four (4) of the above had not begun programs

Assumption College
Boston University
Bridgewater State College
Massachusetts College of Art.

All of the institutions which had an approved generic program agreed to be interviewed when contacted after the research began on April 1, 1978. Two (2) programs, however, did not provide the researcher with lists of their graduates, and the list of graduates provided by "interested parties" for those two institutions was not verified by the institutions. However, all the graduates contacted as a result confirmed their participation in the generic program and were unable to identify any other graduates to be added to the list.

The Survey Population--The Generic Graduates

One hundred and eighty (180) graduates of generic programs were identified. One hundred and sixty-three (163) of these graduates were identified by the eleven (11) generic programs which provided the researcher with lists of their September 1974-December 1977, graduates. An additional eleven (11) graduates were identified by a former faculty associate of Program F (see Table 1) as a complete list of its 1974-1977 graduates. Six (6) graduates were mailed questionnaires from their institution with a cover letter from the dean to preserve the confidentiality of their identity. Data collected through interviews with or responses from these seventeen (17) graduates is included in any analyses which relate to activities of the graduates. It is believed that Program E had seven (7) graduates; the seventh, however, was never identified, and the six (6) questionnaires returned by generic graduates of Program E were answered anonymously.

Of the 180 generic graduates identified, 171 responded to the questionnaire. One hundred and forty-seven (147) were interviewed by phone. Twenty-four (24) graduates responded to the questionnaire in writing and by mail because they were not available or willing to be interviewed by phone (see Table 2).

Table 1: Program Interviews.
Programs coded A to M in no particular order.
() Graduate List not provided by Program.

PROGRAM	PROGRAM INTERVIEW DATE	GRADUATES - 1975	GRADUATES - 1976	GRADUATES - 1977	GRADUATES - TOTAL
A	4/4	7	3	1	11
B	4/12	0	3	19	22
C	4/18	0	0	1	1
D	4/21	0	1	19	20
E	4/21	(0)	(1)	(5)	(6)
F	4/26	(0)	(0)	(11)	(11)
G	5/11	0	8	7	15
H	5/1	0	6	11	17
I	5/3	0	7	9	16
J	5/3	22	9	11	42
K	5/11	0	0	10	10
L	5/22	0	6	0	6
M	4/7	0	2	1	3
Total	13	29	46	105	130

Table 2. Graduate Interviews.
() Graduate List not provided by Program

PROGRAM	IDENTIFIED GRADUATES	RESPONDENTS	RESPONSE RATE (%)	FIRST GRADUATE INTERVIEW	LAST GRADUATE INTERVIEW	% INTERVIEWED FROM APRIL TO JUNE	NUMBER INELIGIBLE BY MAIL
A	11	11	100	4/7	5/19	100	0
B	22	22	100	5/1	6/2	100	0
C	1	1	100	5/16	5/16	100	0
D	20	18	90	5/15	6/13	100	0
E	(6)	(6)	(100)	5/18	5/18	100	(6)
F	(11)	(11)	(100)	6/14	6/21	100	0
G	15	15	100	6/7	6/21	73	4
H	17	17	100	5/21	6/16	100	0
I	16	16	100	5/6	5/26	100	0
J	42	37	88	6/16	6/22	68	12
K	10	9	90	4/7	5/1	100	0
L	5	5	83	6/22	6/29	80	1
M	3	3	100	6/13	6/13	67	1
Total	180	171	95	4/7	6/29	89	24

The Survey Instruments

Two (2) survey instruments were developed: a program questionnaire for utilization in the program interview, and a graduate questionnaire for utilization in the graduate interview. The questionnaires were developed to obtain what was believed to be the relevant data. They were evaluated independently by professionals in the areas of demographic research and questionnaire development and modified slightly after field testing. They were determined to assess the areas relevant to this inquiry to an extent considered feasible in research in which the informants might have strong vested interests in the reported outcomes.

Sets of questions were developed to elicit data from informants which would address aspects of the four (4) basic research questions and which could be tabulated. Efforts were made to reduce the number of questions to the minimum which would provide the necessary data. Some duplication was retained in order to serve as a check on information provided. Where possible, information obtained by the program questionnaire was verified by information obtained from the graduate questionnaire. The final arrangement of the questionnaires was evaluated for organization to the end of facilitating the informants' flow of thought and recall.

Finally, the questionnaires were field-tested with one program informant and five (5) graduates. The field test with the program informant revealed two (2) problems. First, data related to the extent of collaboration between program and school system needed particularly careful examination during analysis. Second, the questions designed to determine the level of institutional support for the program needed clarification. The field test of the graduate questionnaire indicated that the questionnaire obtained the data and achieved the differentiation for which it had been designed. The field test did indicate that it was advantageous for the program interview to precede the graduate interview.

Procedure

The first program interview occurred on April 4, 1978, and the last program interview occurred on May 22, 1978 (see Table 1). Thirteen (13) generic programs at nine (9) colleges and the state university were involved.

The first graduate interview occurred by phone on April 7, 1978, and the last graduate questionnaire was received by mail on September 6, 1978. In all, 171 graduates of an identified 180 supplied data for a response rate of 95% (see Table 2).

Research began on April 3, 1978, with the first program interview scheduled for April 4, 1978, and the desired informant identified. Initial phone calls to all but one of the program directors were made during April to identify the informant, acquaint the desired informant with the research, and schedule an interview.

The Program Questionnaire was in all but one case administered to the faculty informant of the college in question before the Graduate Questionnaire was administered to its graduates. First, it was during the program interview that the researcher requested a list of the program's graduates. Second, specific program information (e.g., model definition--see Graduate Questionnaire, questions 38 + 39, 57 + 58) permitted the graduate interview to be more informed, comprehensive, and precise. In the single exception to the interview sequence, a University of Massachusetts program, the researcher was sufficiently familiar with the program to begin questioning graduates before the most appropriate informant was available for the program interview.

After an initial phone call identifying the program informant, an interview date was scheduled for an in-person or by-phone interview. The informant was provided a copy of the program interview schedule in advance if they desired and the interview was held at their convenience in

a location of their choice. The informant was provided a graduate interview schedule at the end of the program interview and a graduate list was obtained. All scheduled interviews occurred within two weeks of the date of initial contact. The final program interview was conducted in person on May 22, 1978.

The interview style was informal but questions were asked in a consistent fashion for all interviews. If a question was not understood it was repeated exactly. If it was still unclear, the question was rephrased or expanded. If the purpose or intent of a question was queried, it was briefly yet openly and freely discussed. The length of the interviews did not exceed one-half hour although the in-person interviews took place in the context of a more extended social visit.

After the first few program interviews and after graduate lists were provided, graduate interviews were conducted as quickly as they could be scheduled. Approximately 160 program and graduate interviews were conducted during April, May, and June of 1978. Twenty-four (24) questionnaires were returned by mail, some of them later than June, by graduates who were not available or willing to be interviewed by phone or who wished to read the questions. All data from the graduate questionnaire was transferred to a placement table, organized by programs,

as soon as feasible after the interview (Appendix C). When the tables were complete for all the graduates of a program, the completed tables were sent to the appropriate program informant. Each program which had supplied a graduate list received a placement profile of its graduates which reflected all of the information provided by the graduates.

The same interview style was utilized with the graduates as with the program informants. The initial phone contact, usually made in the evening or on a weekend, was designed to inform the participant of the research, its scope, the participation of the institutions, and the nature of the feedback the institutions could expect; to answer any other questions; and to set a time for an interview of ten (10) to twenty (20) minutes. Most participants chose to be interviewed immediately. All informants were invited to set a more convenient time but only fourteen (14) chose to do so.

The last phone interview of graduate respondents occurred on June 22, 1978 (see Table 2). On the following day a final mailing was made to the last known address of all graduates who had not been located or contacted. In total, 149 graduates were interviewed or located by phone, two (2) of whom would not participate, and twenty-four (24) graduates were interviewed via their response in

in writing to the questionnaire. Of the twenty-four (24) responding in writing, thirteen (13) had discussed the interview and its contents on the phone with the researcher.

The last placement profile was tabulated and sent to the program informant on February 21, 1979, approximately five and one-half months after the last questionnaire was received and in time to replicate the survey for the institution's 1977-1978 graduates if the program so desired. Comments the graduates volunteered which were not part of the interview schedule were summarized and included in a letter to the program informant.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This chapter will analyze the data collected by the Graduate and Program Questionnaires both descriptively, and, where appropriate in two (2) instances, statistically. The data will be analyzed in the context of the four (4) research questions and their sub-parts. Research Questions 1 and 4 will be presented first, followed by Research Questions 2 and 3. Discussion of problems presented by the mode of research and the particular research instrument, as well as conclusions which can be drawn from the research, will be presented in the final chapter.

Research Question 1

The first major research question was WHETHER PEOPLE BEING TRAINED IN MASSACHUSETTS AS GENERIC SPECIAL EDUCATORS ARE IN FACT BEING EMPLOYED IN MASSACHUSETTS PUBLIC SCHOOLS TO FUNCTION IN THE ROLES FOR WHICH THEY WERE TRAINED? Of the 180 identified graduates of generic programs in Massachusetts, 171 (95%) responded to the Graduate Questionnaire (see Table 3). One hundred and fifty-eight (158) of those respondents worked in Massachusetts and 155 (98%)

Table 3: Respondents by Program, Residence, Role, and Function.

PROGRAM	GRADUATES	RESPONDENTS	% RESPONDING	RESPONDENTS IN MASSACHU.	% INVOLVED IN EDUCATION	GENERIC SPECIAL EDUCATION	RESOURCE ROOM TEACHER	RES.RM.TR.w.GEN.FUNCTION	% R.R.T w. GEN. FUNCTION	TOTAL w.GENERIC FUNCTION	% OF RESPONDENTS	% OF MASSACHU.RESPONDENTS
A	11	11	100	10	10	100	3	2	2	100	5	45	50
B	22	22	100	22	22	100	2	11	9	82	11	50	50
C	1	1	100	1	1	100	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
D	20	18	90	14	14	100	3	2	2	100	5	28	36
E	6	6	100	6	6	100	2	0	0	0	2	33	33
F	11	10	91	10	10	100	0	2	1	50	1	10	10
G	15	15	100	12	12	100	7	2	0	0	7	47	58
H	17	17	100	14	14	100	6	3	3	100	9	53	64
I	16	16	100	15	15	100	4	5	4	80	8	50	53
J	42	37	88	35	33	94	12	7	4	57	16	43	46
K	10	9	90	9	9	100	2	1	0	0	2	22	22
L	6	6	100	6	6	100	1	1	1	100	2	33	33
M	3	3	100	3	3	100	0	1	1	100	1	33	33
Total	180	171	95	158	155	98	42	38	27	71	69	40	44

of them were currently involved in education. When the graduates were asked: Have you been employed as a generic special teacher or a resource room teacher in the State of Massachusetts at any time since completing the program at (institution)?, forty-two (42) replied yes--generic special teacher, and thirty-eight (38) replies yes--resource room teacher. The answer to the first research question, Whether people being trained in Massachusetts as generic special educators are in fact being employed in Massachusetts public schools to function in the roles for which they were trained? is that forty-two (42) (25%) are.

Chapter V will examine two issues raised by the above result: 1) Is twenty-five percent considered a significant percent?; and 2) Can the employment statement of the graduates be accepted? Forty-two (42) (25%) of the graduate respondents indicated they were employed as generic special teachers since the conclusion of their training program. Applying pertinent aspects of the state definition (i.e., 1) approximately one-third of the teacher's time spent in consultation, and 2) primarily a teacher) to the data provided by those forty-two (42) graduates reduces the total from forty-two (42) to twenty-five (25) just fifteen (15) percent of the respondents. If resource room teachers and "other roles," from whom data was collected and whose in-school behavior conformed to the state criteria are then

added to those twenty-five (25); the total number of graduates fitting the state definition of generic special teacher is twenty (29) or seventeen (17) percent of the graduates responding (see Table 4).

Research Question 4

The fourth research question, ARE THESE GRADUATES FILLING ANY OTHER PROFESSIONAL ROLE?, is answered yes--resource room teacher and administrative positions. While a large number, thirty-eight (38) (22%), took or retained resource room teacher positions, primarily because they were available, a similar number, thirty (30) (18%), took administrative roles in special education. Most of these roles had not existed previous to Chapter 766 (e.g., nineteen (19) respondents specified employment in CET Chairperson roles). Fifteen (15) teachers reported that they had remained in the regular classroom and eight (8) of those indicated that they had participated in the particular generic training program available to them as job insurance. Six (6) teachers were in self-contained classrooms, six (6) were L D specialists, and three (3) had remained in graduate school for a further degree. Of the forty (40) other graduates, fifteen (15) left the area, eight (8) were not located or did not respond, and seventeen (17) were distributed over nine (9) roles ranging

Table 1: Generic by State Definition

PROGRAM	RESPONDENTS	REPORTED GENERIC EMPLOYMENT	REPORTED GENERIC EMPLOYMENT WHICH FIT STATE DEFINITION	OTHER ROLES WHICH FIT STATE DEFINITION OF GENERIC	TOTAL WHICH FIT STATE DEFINITION
A	11	3	3	0	3
B	22	2	2	0	2
C	1	0	0	0	0
D	18	3	3	0	3
E	6	2	0	0	0
F	10	0	0	0	0
G	15	7	4	0	4
H	17	6	4	0	4
I	16	4	3	1	4
J	37	12	4	2	6
K	9	2	2	0	2
L	6	1	0	1	1
M	3	0	0	0	0
Total	171	42	25	4	29

from maternity leave to private employment (see Table 5).

Research Question 2

DOES THE EMPLOYMENT PATTERN (OF GENERIC SPECIAL TEACHERS) REFLECT DIFFERENCES AMONG TRAINING PROGRAMS OR DIFFERENCES AMONG LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS? The pattern of employment that emerged from the analysis of the data supplied by the graduates whose employment behaviors fit the definition of generic special teacher is that the graduates (with one exception) of all programs were employed only locally. Locally is defined as a limited geographical area, but did include for one program two (2) specific, distant, geographic localities which had collaborated with the program during its model development. The single graduate exception was an individual hired in a generic role for a state-funded project within a school system (Boston) at a single school for a single year as an experiment.

All but three (3) graduates functioning as generic special teachers were employed by school systems in the eastern third of the state. The twenty-nine (29) graduates whose behaviors fit the state definition of generic were employed in twenty-four (24) separate school systems. The largest concentrations of those graduates were three (3)

Table 5: Employment Distribution by Roles.

PROGRAM	GRADUATES	GENERIC	RESOURCE ROOM	ADMINISTRATOR	REGULAR CLASS	L.D. SPECIALIST	SELF-CONTAINED	GRADUATE SCHOOL	LEFT AREA	NOT LOCATED	OTHER
A	11	3	2	1	3	-	-	-	1	-	1
B	22	2	11	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
C	1	0	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
D	20	3	2	2	5	2	-	-	4	2	-
E	6	2	0	-	-	3	1	-	-	-	-
F	11	0	2	4	3	-	-	-	-	1	1
G	15	7	2	-	1	-	1	-	3	-	1
H	17	6	3	3	-	-	1	-	3	-	1
I	16	4	5	4	2	-	-	-	1	-	-
J	42	12	7	6	1	1	1	-	2	5	7
K	10	2	1	2	-	-	1	3	1	-	-
L	6	1	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
M	3	0	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1
Total	180	42	38	30	15	6	6	3	15	8	17

each in Natick and Sudbury, two (2) in Boston, and one each in the remaining systems (see Table 6).

Research Question 3

CAN ANY DIFFERENCES (IN EMPLOYMENT PATTERNS) BE LINKED TO HYPOTHESIZED CONTRIBUTING FACTORS: A) COLLABORATION BETWEEN TRAINING PROGRAMS AND SCHOOL SYSTEMS, B) DEFINITION OF THE GENERIC ROLE BY TRAINING PROGRAMS, C) FUNDING OF TRAINING PROGRAMS, D) CREATION OF NEW SPECIAL EDUCATION POSITIONS WITHIN SCHOOL SYSTEMS, AND E) LOCUS OF ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT OF THE GENERIC ROLE WITHIN SCHOOL SYSTEMS? The percentages of those responding they were employed as generic, the percentages of those defined generic, and the patterns of employment were to be related to several of the factors hypothesized as contributing to differences among training programs or school systems which affected the utilization of program graduates. Those factors were not demonstrated to be relevant in the manner originally hypothesized by the data produced by this research.

Collaboration between training programs and school systems. Table 6 displays data that demonstrates that every school system included as 1) having employed graduates as generic special teachers, 2) having employed graduates in other roles which function like generic special teachers which could be identified from the data, and/or 3) having

Table 6: Systems employing graduates in generic/ consultant roles

School Systems	Fit Generic Description	Reported Generic Employment	Programs Reporting Colla. Consultation 30%+	Consul. Strategy 20%-30%
Bedford	I		J	I
Boston	B,K	B,K	B,F,I	B,K	B,B
Braintree	J		J	J	
Carlisle	H	H	H,I	H	
Chelsea			G		J
East Bridgewater	J		J	J	
Easthampton	K	K	K	K	
Fitchburg	D	D	D	D	
Foxboro/Attleboro	J		J	J	
Framingham		H	G,H		
Greenfield	L		A,K,L	L	A
Groton/Dunstable	A	A	A	A	
Harvard/Brownfield	D	D	D	D	
Holden	D	D	D	D	
Holliston	B	B	G,H	B	
Lenox	A	A	A,K	A	
Longmeadow		L	K		
Lowell		G	D		G
Lynnfield		J	J		
Marblehead	G	G	J	G	
Milford	J	J,J,J	J	J,J	J
Millis		H	H		
Natick	J,I,I	J-6,I-2	H,I,J	J,I,I	J,J,J
Needham		J	H		J,I
Northboro		E	E	E	
Pittsfield	A	A	A,K	A	
Reading	G	G	G	G	
Rutland			E		E
Sherburn		I	I		
Stoneham	G	G,G	G	G	
Sudbury	H,H,H	H,H,H	H	H,H,H	
Wakefield	J	J	J	J	
Waltham		G	G		
Winchester	G	G	G,K	G	
Woburn	I	I	I	I	
Worcester		E	D,E,K	E	E,E,E
Total Systems 36					
Total Fit Definition 29					
Total Reported Generic 42					
Total Systems Using Consultation 30%+ 26					
Total Systems Using Consultation 30					

graduates employed in roles which devote significant time to consultation with regular classroom teachers, had previously collaborated in some fashion with at least one of the graduate programs. Every school system listed had been identified by at least one program informant in the program interviews, which preceded the graduate interviews, as having been a system which had collaborated in the development of that program's delivery model. And in all but six (6) instances, the graduate employed in a generic role by a school system was from a program with which the system had previously collaborated. The thirteen (13) graduate programs indicated they had collaborated with seventy-three (73) separate school systems, and twenty-one (21) of those school systems collaborated with more than one graduate program (see Appendix D for the list of school systems).

Collaboration had a relationship to the employment of generic special teachers. All graduates who were employed as generic special teachers or who functioned as generic special teachers were employed by systems identified as a collaborator by at least one program. This was true for all graduates where their current school system was provided as data. No individuals, trained in Massachusetts programs, were employed or functioning as generic special teachers in school systems which had not collaborated with at least one of the programs. There are more than seventy-

three (73) school systems in Massachusetts, so it does not appear to simply be the effect of the graduate programs covering all bets by identifying every system. However, the nature of the collaboration was both more complex and more accidental than was originally speculated in the research proposal. The complexity will be discussed in Chapter V.

The programs involved in this research have defined-and-established-collaborative-efforts existing between their special education programs and local school systems (see Table 7). The researcher expected to discover the extent to which intentional collaboration on behalf of specific program design and implementation had affected the employability of the graduates in specific roles. It is unclear from the data how much of that collaboration was intentional and influenced the results of interest and how much was related to preexisting constraints. Further, statistical analysis does not support an inference that graduates from institutions reporting high collaboration are more frequently employed in the appropriate role than graduates from institutions reporting less collaboration ($x^2=2.458$, $p < .05$ w. 1df, see Table 8).

Table 7: Collaboration Continuum.

PROGRAM	MODEL NOT MUTUALLY DEVELOPED	COMMUNICATION ONLY ONE WAY	LEVEL OF PERSONNEL INVOLVED LIMITED	LOW	MODEL MUTUALLY DEVELOPED	COMMUNICATION TWO WAY	RANGE OF PERSONNEL INVOLVED BROAD	MEDIUM	HIGH
A	X	-	X		-	X	-		
B	X	X	-		-	-	X		
C	X	X	X		-	-	-		
D	X	X	X		-	-	-		
E	X	X	X		-	-	-		
F	-	-	X		X	X	-		
G	-	-	-		X	X	X		
H	X	X	X		-	-	-		
I	-	-	-		X	X	X		
J	-	-	-		X	X	X		
K	-	X	X		X	-	-		
L	X	X	X		-	-	-		
M	X	X	X		-	-	-		
Total		6		4		3			

Table 3: A 2 x 2 contingency table of EMPLOYMENT by COLLABORATION

		COLLABORATION				
		LOW		HIGH		
EMPLOYMENT	GENERIC	A- 8 B-20 D-15 E- 4 H-11 K- 7 L- 5 70	70	G- 8 I-12 J-25 45	45	115
	NON-GENERIC	A- 3 B- 2 D- 3 E- 2 H- 3 K- 2 L- 1 16	16	G- 7 I- 4 J-12 23	23	42
			86		68	157

(Formula) $\chi^2 = \frac{(o-e)}{e}$

Obtained $\chi^2 = 2.436$

$p < .05$ with $1df = 2.710$

The inference that graduates from high collaboration institutions are employed more frequently as generic special teachers than graduates from low collaboration institutions is not justified.

Definition of the generic role by training programs. State audits of generic training programs found that different programs emphasized different parts of the state definition. The proposal suggested that while all of the generic training programs could be expected to be designed to be consistent with the state definition, both the realities of the marketplace and differences in opinion had influenced the creation of programs with different emphases. In order to determine the relationship between levels of consistency with the state definition and the number of employed graduates in generic positions, a continuum was designed from low to high with each additional step signifying increasing congruence with the state definition (see Table 9). The six (6) aspects of the state definition, as originally delineated, were as follows.

Graduates will:

1) have knowledge of materials, curriculum, and management,
2) teach, not supervise,
3) work with adults as well as children,
4) provide ongoing support and inservice to regular classroom teachers concerning children who spend at least 75% of their time in the regular class,
5) facilitate the change process in school systems, and programs will
6) develop role models (e.g., Consulting Teacher, Diagnostic Prescriptive Teacher, Curriculum Specialist, etc.).

The expected differences in program emphases did not appear in the data provided by the program informants. Some possible reason for this lack of differentiation will

Table 9: Definition Continuum.

	L O W		MEDIUM		H I G H	
PROGRAM	CURRICULUM, MATERIALS AND MANAGEMENT	TEACHING ROLE	WORKS WITH ADULTS	PROVIDES SUPPORT AND INSERVICE	CHANGE AGENT	SPECIFIC MODEL
A	X	X	X	X	X	X
B	X	X	X	X	X	X
C	X	X	X	X	X	X
D	X	X	X	X	X	X
E	X	X	X	X	-	X
F	X	X	X	X	X	X
G	X	X	X	X	X	X
H	X	X	X	X	X	X
I	X	X	X	X	X	X
J	X	X	X	X	X	X
K	X	X	X	X	X	-
L	X	X	X	X	-	-
M	X	X	X	X	-	-
Total				2	11	

be discussed in Chapter V. However, no comparisons between programs can be made based on the relationship of the level of definition to the number of employed because all of the programs, save two (2) with low graduate counts, rank the same on the definitional continuum (see Table 9). It is clear that all the graduates except one from Program J, who were interviewed with the entire questionnaire, described both their program preparation and the generic role in a fashion that demonstrated familiarity with the state definition and its influence both on their training and on their current position.

Funding of training programs. While all the program informants provided general information about the existence and locus of funding support during the 1) planning stages of their program development, 2) the first year of their program implementation, and 3) their current operations; questions designed to ascertain common meanings appeared to generate discomfort and/or digressive discussion. Responding that their program had been funded during the planning stage meant a planning grant but no departmental funds to one program, a couple of research assistants from the department to a second program, and freedom to use some work time (with no reduction in responsibility) to a third program. It became clear to the researcher that the data being collected was internally inconsistent.

The intent had been to relate existence of funds for planning and implementation to graduate employment and then, further, to relate the existence of institutional support, as demonstrated by investment of departmental funds, to graduate employment. However, the test for independence did not support an inference that planning funds or lack of planning funds influenced the distribution of employed graduates to any degree (x^2=.6156208, $p < .05$ w. ldf, see Table 10). The problems with this material will be discussed in Chapter V.

Creation of new special education positions within school systems. Of the 171 graduates responding to the survey, 155 were involved in education in Massachusetts. Those 155 graduates were distributed among sixty-eight (68) school systems, collaboratives, and private and state institutions. In all, of the forty (40) graduates who reported generic employment and who identified their school system, thirty-one (31) were in positions new to the graduate's school system the year of their employment upon completion of the generic training, three (3) were in positions redefined for the generic role, and six (6) were employed in generic positions which had existed previous to their employment.

While Boston employed the most graduates, thirty-six (36), thirty-four (34) (94%) of those graduates had held

Table 10: A 2 X 2 contingency table of EMPLOYMENT by PLANNING FUNDS.

		PLANNING FUNDS				
		YES		NO		
EMPLOYED AS GENERIC	YES	A- 3 B- 2 D- 3 E- 2 F- 0 I- 4 J-12 K- 2 M- 0 28	28	C- 0 G- 7 H- 6 L- 1 14	14	42
	NO	A- 8 B-20 D-15 E- 4 F-10 I-12 J-25 K- 7 M- 3 104	104	C- 1 G- 8 H-11 L- 5 25	25	129
			132		39	171

(Formula) $$x^2 = \sum\sum \frac{(o-e)^2}{e}$$

Obtained $x^2 = .6156208$ $p < .05$ with $1df = 2.718$

The inference that graduates from programs with funds for planning are employed more frequently as generic special teachers than graduates from programs without funds for planning is <u>not</u> justified.

the same position as a special education teacher in the same school before the generic training. Only two (2) of the graduates employed in Boston held newly established or completely redefined positions, and one of those positions was a one-year project without further funding. None of the "Boston" graduates described their positions as redefined in conjunction with their generic training and those who were now functioning as CET Chairpersons had simply had that responsibility added to their previous role (see Table 11).

Natick employed eight (8) generic graduates in eight (8) positions which the system had labeled generic. However, only three (3) of those positions completely fit the generic definition. The remaining five (5) positions spent a plurality of their time in administration or supervision. Framingham employed five (5) graduates and one reported employment in a generic role. Sudbury employed four (4) graduates and three (3) were in roles that fit the generic description. Worcester also employed four (4) graduates with none fitting the generic description but one reporting generic employment.

Fitchburg, Greenfield, Lynnfield, Milford, Needham, and the Franklin Collaborative all employed three (3) graduates each. All the positions in Milford and one each in Fitchburg and Needham were reported generic, and one

Table 11: Creation of Positions.

SCHOOL SYSTEMS	GRADUATES EMPLOYED	REPORTED GENERIC	NEW POSITION	REDEFINED POSITION	PREVIOUSLY ESTABLISHED POSITION
Boston	36	2	1	0	1
Natick	8	8	7	1	0
Framingham	5	1	1	0	0
Sudbury	4	3	3	0	0
Worcester		1	0	0	1
Fitchburg	3	1	1	0	0
Greenfield		0	0	0	0
Lynnfield		0	0	0	0
Milford		3	3	0	0
Needham		1	0	0	0
Franklin Collaborative		0	0	0	0
Fourteen School Systems	2	9	7	1	1
Forty School Systems	1	11	8	1	2
Total	143*	40	31	3	6

*Some respondents did not identify their school systems, some worked for the state, and some privately consulted.

position in Fitchburg, Greenfield, Milford, and Needham fit the generic description. Fourteen (14) school systems hired two (2) graduates each. Nine (9) of those twenty-eight (28) positions were reported to be generic, and seven (7) of those nine (9) fit the generic description. Forty (40) school systems employed a single graduate. Eleven (11) of those graduates reported generic employment, but thirteen (13) positions actually fit the generic description.

These figures appear to reflect more than one perspective. In addition to providing an indication of the number of positions created and available to generically-trained graduates, the numbers also reflect the willingness of generically-trained graduates to take such positions. Of the 157 graduates who provided data on their career intentions and employment efforts, only sixty-one (61)(39%) actually applied for or took positions which were either reported generic or which fit the generic description. Thirty-nine (39) graduates (29%) reported knowing of generic positions for which they did not apply (see Table 12).

Locus of administrative support of the generic role within school systems. The literature indicates that a great deal of the successful mainstreaming of individuals with mild special needs occurs in school systems where the special education services exist as an integral part of an

Table 12: Career/Employment intentions.

PROGRAM	GRADUATES	RESPONDENTS WHO PROVIDED DATA	RESPONDENTS WHO INTENDED TO SEEK GENERIC EMPLOY.	RESPONDENTS WHO APPLIED FOR OR TOOK GENERIC POSITIONS	RESPONDENTS WHO DID NOT INTEND GENERIC ENTRY UPON PROGRAM	RESPONDENTS WHO APPLIED FOR GENERIC EMPLOYMENT	TOTAL RESPONDENTS WHO APPLIED FOR OR TOOK GENERIC EMPLOYMENT	TOTAL WHO DID NOT APPLY FOR OR TAKE GENERIC POSITIONS	TOTAL WHO DID NOT APPLY FOR OR TAKE GENERIC POSITIONS AND DID NOT INTEND TO
A	11	11	11	4	0	0	4	2	
B	22	22	13	3	3	1	4	6	
C	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	
D	20	14	3	2	11	1	3	6	
E	6	6	4	2	2	0	2	1	
F	11	10	4	0	6	0	0	1	
G	15	12	9	6	3	1	7	1	
H	17	14	8	3	6	1	4	7	
I	16	15	7	5	8	2	7	2	
J	42	33	23	19	10	5	24	6	
K	10	10	8	5	2	0	5	2	
L	6	6	5	1	1	0	1	1	
M	3	3	1	0	2	0	0	3	
Total	180	157	97	50	60	11	61	39	

individual school which functions as an autonomous unit under the leadership of its principal. This researcher suspected that 1) the college and university programs would be aware of that indication, 2) programs which had a high degree of collaboration with school systems would convey that information to school systems planning for the use of generic special educators, and 3) in those systems where the generic or resource room teachers were functioning consistent with the stated generic definition they would also be reporting primarily to their principals. However, since the inference that more graduates from high collaboration institutions would be employed was not justified, a further comparison specifically related to collaboration is not warranted.

While an examination of the graduate data suggests that this factor--locus of administrative support--is dependent upon the school systems providing employment, Table 13 displays an interesting finding. While graduates who responded they had either generic or resource room employment reported primarily to the principal, fifty-two percent and fifty-seven percent, respectively, those employed graduates from both of those groups who fit the generic definition reported to the principal sixty-six percent of the time. Table 14 demonstrates further that graduates who reported generic employment responded that

Table 13: Locus of Support.

PROGRAM	GRADUATES	REPORTED GENERIC	REPORTED TO PRINCIPAL	REPORTED TO DIRECTOR	DEFINED GENERIC	REPORTED TO PRINCIPAL	REPORTED TO DIRECTOR	RESOURCE ROOM TEACHER	REPORTED TO PRINCIPAL	REPORTED TO DIRECTOR	% DEFINED GENERIC REPORTED TO PRINCIPAL
A	11	3	0	3	3	0	3	2	1	1	0
B	22	2	2	0	2	2	0	11	8	3	100
C	1	0	-	-	0	-	-	1	0	1	-
D	20	3	3	0	3	3	0	2	1	1	100
E	6	2	0	2	1	0	1	0	-	-	0
F	11	0	-	-	0	-	-	2	2	0	-
G	15	7	4	3	4	3	1	2	0	2	75
H	17	6	6	0	4	4	0	3	2	1	100
I	16	4	1	3	3	0	3	5	3	2	0
J	42	12	4	8	6	5	1	7	5	2	83
K	10	2	2	0	2	2	0	1	0	1	100
L	6	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0
M	3	0	-	-	0	-	-	1	0	1	0
Total	180	42	22	20	29	19	10	38	22	16	66

Table 14: Graduate Contribution to Formation of Role

PROGRAM	GRADUATES	REPORTED GENERIC ROLE	HAD INPUT TO ROLE IN SYSTEM	HAD NO INPUT TO ROLE IN SYSTEM	DEFINED GENERIC ROLE	HAD INPUT TO ROLE IN SYSTEM	HAD NO INPUT TO ROLE IN SYSTEM	RESOURCE ROOM TEACHER ROLE	HAD INPUT TO ROLE IN SYSTEM	HAD NO INPUT TO ROLE IN SYSTEM
A	11	3	3	0	3	3	0	2	2	0
B	22	2	1	1	2	1	1	11	6	5
C	1	0	-	-	0	-	-	1	0	1
D	20	3	3	0	3	3	0	2	1	1
E	6	2	0	2	1	0	1	0	-	-
F	11	0	-	-	0	-	-	2	1	1
G	15	7	5	2	4	3	1	2	1	1
H	17	6	5	1	4	4	0	3	3	0
I	16	4	2	2	3	2	1	5	4	1
J	42	12	6	6	6	5	1	7	3	4
K	10	2	2	0	2	2	0	1	0	1
L	6	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	0
M	3	0	-	-	0	-	-	1	1	0
Total	180	42	27	15	29	24	5	38	23	15

they had input into their role in the individual school system sixty-four percent of the time, those with resource room employment had input sixty percent of the time, and, again significantly higher, those whose roles fit the state generic definition reported having input into their role description eighty-two percent of the time. The utilization of a generic role which fit the state definition was more in evidence where the generic graduate could influence the design of their employed role and report to the principal.

Summary

This section will review the four research questions and their sub-sections, and will note the results suggested by the data analysis.

First, Whether people being trained in Massachusetts as generic special educators are in fact being employed in Massachusetts public schools to function in the roles for which they were trained?, the answer is yes. Yet--forty percent are if you ask the graduates with no further qualifiers, or yes--seventeen percent are if you examine reported employment behaviors which are consistent with the generic definition.

Second, Does the employment pattern reflect differences among training programs or differences among local

school systems? The employment pattern that emerged was that all graduates were employed only locally with all but three (3) graduates employed in the eastern third of the state. No differences among training programs or local school systems were reflected in the data other than the fact that all graduates employed in Boston, save two (2), were teachers previously and continuously employed in Boston engaged in retraining.

Third, Can any differences be linked to hypothesized contributing factors: a) collaboration between training programs and school systems, b) definition of the generic role by training programs, c) funding of training programs, d) creation of new special education positions within school systems, and e) locus of administrative support of the generic role within school systems. While the collaboration (a) was not statistically demonstrated to have contributed to the rate of employment in the generic role, all school systems hiring generic graduates in the generic role had collaborated with at least one graduate program. None of the fifteen (15) graduates who were hired by fourteen (14) school districts which had not collaborated with any program were in generic roles. The Program Questionnaire did not produce data which allowed a differentiation between programs based on the degree of definition (b) of the generic role. That problem will be discussed further

in Chapter V. Regarding funding, (c), the test for independence did not support an inference that planning funds influenced the distribution of employed graduates to any degree. This factor, also, will be discussed further in Chapter V.

The importance of creating new positions (d) to establish new roles was demonstrated in that thirty-one (31) (77%) of the forty (40) graduates reporting generic employment and supplying data about their school systems were in new positions. This is contrasted with the data from "Boston" graduates where two (2) (6%) of thirty-six (36) graduates reported generic employment. One of the two (2) was employed in a new position and the other was transferred to a position where the principal allowed freedom to define the role. All other "Boston" graduates remained in old positions and continued established responsibilities while adding some new responsibilities (CET Chairperson role, etc.). This factor will be discussed further in Chapter V. The locus of administrative support (e) differs from system to system and shows no evidence of being related to program collaboration. However, the utilization of a role which fit the state generic definition was more in evidence where the generic graduate employed in the role could influence the design of the new role and report to the principal.

Fourth and last, Are these graduates filling any other professional role? Yes--thirty-eight (38)(22%) are in resource room positions and thirty (30)(18%) are in administrative roles in special education.

Chapter V will discuss the findings reported here, problems with the data collection (questionnaire) or with the treatment of the data, the conclusions of the researcher, and recommendations for further research.

C H A P T E R V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter will examine the problems experienced in the research and the treatment of the data, the conclusions which can be derived from the data in the context of the limitations described, and recommendations for further study. Problems and limitations as they apply to the research questions will be discussed in the same order as the data was presented in Chapter IV: first Research Question 1, followed by Research Questions 4, 2, and 3. The limitations which were either anticipated or imposed by problems in both the research design and the data collection will be identified. The conclusions will be discussed and qualified in light of those limitations. Finally, this chapter will conclude with recommendations for further study.

Research Question 1

Chapter I described how the State of Massachusetts established the need for a generic role in special education with a law which was responsive to the special needs of certain children. The state agency for education encouraged the development and training of such a professional. Institutions developed training programs for such a teaching role which 1) were responsive to the law, 2)

were responsive to the expectations and guidelines of the state agency, 3) received state or federal funding for planning and implementation, 4) recruited new or current students to the new program curriculum, and 5) certified its graduates as qualified.

The intent of this research was to determine whether the graduates of those programs were being employed in the role of generic special teacher. The answer is yes--some are. How many and whether that number is significant has to be qualified.

There were no published reports of the numbers or percentages of graduates employed in the models for this role (DPT, Consulting Teacher, etc.) which were discussed in Chapter II. It should be noted that those models were usually change agent roles without a legislated mandate. With that note, the fact that a program developer for one of those models suggested to the University of Massachusetts special education staff in 1975 that having one-out-of-five graduates "really doing it" was success is understandable. In sharp contrast, a program informant involved in this research throught that well over sixty percent of that program's graduates were functioning as generic even if not all were employed in that specific role. Her speculation was based on informal feedback from the program's graduates. This informant felt strongly that

a sixty percent employment rate in the generic role was needed to qualify as success.

As a result of these divergent views, the Graduate Questionnaire was designed to include for comprehensive questioning all the graduates who thought they were employed as generic special teachers in role or function. The questionnaire was also designed to isolate data which would further identify those graduates who were "really doing it" in terms of employment behaviors. In the context of this questionnaire the utilization of a qualifying, "nature of employment" question depended upon a common utilization of the term generic and a common understanding of the role of generic special teacher. Examination of the data confirms, however, that forty percent of the positive "generic employment" statements are not consistent with generic employment behaviors as defined by the state and the informal agreements of the training programs.

When the Division of Special Education disseminated the preliminary definition of the role of the Generic Special Teacher, which is on pages 2 and 3 of Chapter I, the Division differentiated the role from existing special education roles by 1) competence in working effectively with adults (i.e., consultation), 2) a thorough knowledge of the regular classroom environment, and 3) competence in facilitating change processes in public school systems,

specifically, facilitating Chapter 766. In addition, it was emphasized that the generic special teacher should be considered a teacher rather than an administrator or supervisor. Graduate programs utilized this definition to be approved for certification purposes. During the process of the state audits for program certification it became generally understood and agreed that generic special teachers would divide their time roughly into equal thirds devoted to consultation, instruction, and facilitation of Chapter 766. The latter third often translated in the graduate preparation into familiarity with Core Evaluation Team requirements and the ability to write instructional plans and placements.

Despite the state definition of the role the researcher suspected that graduates might be hired as generic special teachers by local directors who had funds for a generic role, but, essentially, they would be hired to meet local needs from the local point of view as was demonstrated in the search of the literature in Chapter II. Thus, the graduate would spend most of the time in instruction or a majority of the time in administering the Core Evaluation Team process, or in supervision of aides, etc. The questionnaire did isolate ten (10) graduates who indicated they were employed as generic specialists, nine (9) of whom spent a majority of their time in administration and

supervision and one who spent 100% of her time in instruction. Six (6) respondents who reported that their resource room teacher role included a generic function spent no time in consultation during the school day. They went on to explain that they provided the consultation before and after hours.

The opposite was also true. Graduates who did not consider themselves generic specialists or resource room teachers, but called themselves CET Chairpersons, Liaison Teachers, Unit Teachers, L D Specialists, or some other title, were occasionally behaving more in conformity with the state-disseminated definition than some of the forty-two (42) graduates reporting generic employment. Among those identifying themselves as generic the variation of time spent in consultation and/or instruction ranged from five percent to one hundred percent of their working day. It is clear that graduates in the other roles mentioned above, excluded by the employment question and the individual graduate's interpretation of it from the opportunity to provide comprehensive data, exhibited employment behaviors which would comfortably match those employment behaviors of the self-reported generics and the time spent in consultation and instruction (see Table 15). Twenty-eight (28) graduates would have been appropriately questioned with the whole questionnaire despite their no

Table 13: Range of time spent in function.

PROGRAM	MASS. RESPONDENTS	GENERIC + RES.R.I. W.GENERIC FUNCTION	RANGE OF TIME IN CONSULTATION	RANGE OF TIME IN INSTRUCTION	OTHER ROLES	RANGE OF TIME IN CONSULTATION	RANGE OF TIME IN STRUCTION
A	10	5	10-100	0- 90	0	-	-
B	22	11	0- 30	20-100	3	0-10	90-10
C	1	0	-	-	0	-	-
D	14	5	0- 85	15-100	3	-	-
E	6	2	25- 30	25- 75	3	20-25	51-80
F	10	1	0- 10	10- 90	4	0- 5	5-95
G	12	7	10-100	0- 80	1	0-20	0-50
H	14	9	5-50	33- 95	1	-	-
I	15	8	0-100	0-100	4	-	-
J	35	16	5-85	0- 95	3	10-60	0-85
K	9	2	33-50	33-50	0	-	-
L	6	2	0-20	0- 40	3	15-30	50-35
M	3	1	0-10	10-90	0	-	-
Total	153	69	0-100	0-100	28*	0-60	0-100

*Data was collected from 13 of those 28 respondents. Graduates who responded by mail tended to ignore instructions and to answer all questions. Some phone respondents seemed eager to discuss their experiences with an informed and receptive listener.

answer on the qualifying employment question. Fifteen (15) of that twenty-eight (28) were not questioned further as a result of their response. This number distributed over eight (8) programs does not have any observable effect on any comparisons. But this design component, excluding graduates from further questioning, proved to be unnecessary and the effect has been to remove certainty about the exact number of graduates who conform to the state definition of generic special teacher.

To return to the research question, whether graduates are employed and functioning in the role for which they were trained?, yes, twenty-nine (29) (17%) are, definitely. A few additional graduates may be but were not identified as doing so. That number, twenty-nine (29) (17%), as a statement of the transformation of state policies into relevant, utilized models for educational change that is observable in schools, does not denote significant success at the time of this study.

Research Question 4

A research question identifying what other roles the graduates were taking seemed a natural correlary to Research Question 1 above. The surge of emphasis on special education mandated by Chapter 766 created an administrative void for which few current educators were prepared.

Natural pressures could be expected to force or draw the new generic graduates into consideration for administrative roles being required by law. It also seemed that an alternative role for a programmatic response to Chapter 766 would be the expansion of existing resource room programs. This would circumvent the concern around the consideration and implementation of generic positions, which involved a specific, new role without an identified class load or direct-services-to-children component. Conversations with the directors of the special education programs of ten (10) school districts proximate to the University of Massachusetts over a three (3) year period had established that none of those ten (10) directors felt that such a role, defined without a direct-services-to-children emphasis, was defensible to their school boards. The results of the research register a similar response elsewhere in the state, in that seventeen (17) of the forty-two (42) graduates (40%) who reported generic employment actually spent much more of their time in instructional or administrative functions than a strict interpretation of the role would permit. Both the number of graduates who accepted administrative positions, thirty (30), and the number who accepted resource room positions, thirty-eight (38), exceeded the number of graduates who displayed

consistent generic behaviors in their positions, twenty-nine (29).

Research Question 2

The intent of Research Question 2 was to establish the employment of graduates in the generic role. The result was of interest both in terms of whatever pattern appeared and in terms of the potential for comparison to some hypothesized contributing factors in Research Question 3. The researcher expected that some of the programs would have been considerably more purposeful and comprehensive in their inclusion of some of the hypothesized contributing factors and the employment rate of their program graduates in generic roles would reflect that. However, the probable, eventual employment pattern became apparent with the first program informant interview. Simultaneously, an unstated assumption was exposed and invalidated.

The context within which the research questions were framed and the procedures were field-tested was the generic programs at the University of Massachusetts. Most (28 of 30 or 93%) of the University of Massachusetts graduates had been recruited to full-time programs at the University. In contrast, the graduate population of eight (8) of the nine (9) programs not located at the University of Massachusetts had significant numbers (50 of

77 or 65%) currently employed in teaching roles in school systems while participating in the generic training. Many of those graduates reported they expected to stay with the same system and obtain new roles if a desirable position opened up in their system. Eighty-nine percent of the graduates from programs B, D, F, and H at the time of this study fell into this group. It was clear that the employment pattern of these graduates would reflect differences among school systems.

The programs were fairly balanced with regard to graduates employed and functioning as generic special teachers. The "low" program had six (6) of thirty-three (33) state respondents or eighteen percent, and the "high" program had four (4) of twelve (12) or thirty-three percent employed and displaying consistent generic behaviors. The pattern that emerged is that all programs had a few graduates employed as generic only locally. This pattern cannot be definitively linked to any other factors examined in this research.

Research Question 3

The intent of this research question was to establish whether a relationship existed between hypothesized factors and the employment of graduates from programs which included those factors in their planning and

implementation. The hypothesized factors of a) collaboration between institutions and school systems, b) the definition of the role, c) funding, d) creation of new positions, and e) focus on the principals in the schools and systems had all been identified in Chapter II as recurring in situations of successful utilizations of the models upon which the generic special teacher was based.

As with the employment pattern noted in Research Question 2, initiation of the research quickly established that several unstated assumptions existed and that these assumptions were invalid. Unlike the situation at the University of Massachusetts and four (4) of the colleges where the programs were being planned and implemented in response to the legislative mandate and state department urgings, five (5) of the colleges had previously established other graduate programs in special education which were being continued, adapted, and integrated to some extent with the new generic curriculum. So the notion of a relatively clean experimental opportunity occurring in natural circumstances through the intervention of the Division of Special Education was debunked. Over half of the institutions involved could be expected to have agendas which mixed survival strategies for old programs with experimental strategies for new programs in their efforts at collaboration, definition, and funding. The

program interview instrument had not been designed to discriminate between factors and programs under those circumstances. Further, the program interview instrument was purposefully designed to be tentative and shallow to gain or maintain the cooperation and acceptance of a disparate group of program directors who had expressed concern about measurement of their programs at that early stage of development (second to third year). Several of the programs had to go to some trouble to identify their certified generic graduates. The researcher and the consultant on questionnaire design opted against 1) alienating the informants during the program interview with many probing questions to verify information, and 2) burdening informants with followup to establish levels of discrepancy. However, that research decision was made 1) before the research unearthed the confounding agendas, and 2) with the belief that the program questionnaire would produce data with sufficient differentiation for the purposes of this research. The program questionnaire and the informant interviews did not produce the desired differentiation.

Collaboration. The literature review of Chapter II suggested that without some form of collaboration school systems reject the efforts of colleges and universities to design models for their use, and conversely, colleges and universities which had effectively involved school systems

in their model development and training programs experienced a higher rate of utilization of their model. So, for research purposes, the level of intentional collaboration on the part of each program was to be established via the interview with the program informant. The responses of the informant regarding program behavior in the areas of 1) model development, 2) communication, and 3) range of school personnel involved were to be compared to definitions for low, medium, and high collaboration derived from the literature and which had been delineated in the dissertation proposal. All the programs were ranked either low, medium, or high, and it appeared they could be related to a continuum of percentages of graduates employed as generic specialists ranked either low, medium, or high. These two variables, collaboration and employment could be tested for independence by constructing a 3 x 3 contingency table and using the Chi-square test. However, because of the confounding aspects discussed above, the data results are suspect and the statistical analysis is inconclusive.

As an elaboration of the problem with the research design, two programs serve as a useful example. The generic programs developed by programs B and F had a very large component designed for specific groups of currently employed teachers from a specific school district as part

of a funded project to assist Boston to prepare for Chapter 766. From this group, for instance, eight (8) graduates reported they participated in the generic training program solely as a form of job insurance. The collaboration of the institution and school system, in this instance, included the clarification of a contract for delivery of prepaid retraining rather than an intentional effort at program development.

Thus, in conclusion, in many instances the collaboration being examined and noted may have been the accidental effect of where the graduate student was currently employed rather than or in addition to an intentional preliminary activity promoting program development. The statement that all school systems hiring generic graduates in the generic role had collaborated with at least one graduate program is made in that context.

Definition. The same problems contributed to insufficient differentiation among the programs in terms of level of model definition. All the informants responded to questions concerning the definition of their generic model that their program prepared its graduates in a fashion consistent with each aspect of the state definition. Yet, some differences in program content were noted from the graduate interviews to have had an effect on the graduates' "generic" roles. Two (2) programs which emphasized formal

diagnostic content had several graduates employed as CET Chairpersons who reported they were employed generic but found their formal testing, supervision, and CET administration filling their time. Similar observations were reported by the program informants. They, however, stressed that such activity was consistent with the state generic special teacher definition and necessary to the role. It appears now that a careful and detailed naturalistic inquiry of all the graduates regarding their experience of the model taught and the content emphasis could have provided an effective means of differentiation and comparison to the state-established aspects of the generic definition.

Funding. Funding as an issue was far too sensitive and too complex for the tentative examination envisioned as part of the program interview and this research. The nature of the relationship of funded planning time to levels of eventual employment of graduates in generic roles seemed to be a desirable piece of knowledge. Funding also seemed a reasonable measure of institutional support in both the planning and implementation stages, and the implied level of institutional support related to employment levels was also of interest. Unfortunately, the interesting aspects of the potential results obscured the sketchiness of the construct. The search for inferences

other than the direct relationship of planning funds to employment levels may have increased the difficulty of data collection around this sensitive issue.

Informant responses to questions on funding were clearly related to individual, subjective experience of their current position within the institutions in all instances where there was not direct evidence of outside funding. Other than the funding from outside the institution, no informant had differentiated the separate effort for planning and implementation of the new generic program in formal or budgetary terms. Thus, institutional support was not demonstrated by budgetary approval for a certain level of new effort compared to old effort but rather by 1) one less course to teach while planning, 2) a new staff member, or 3) an additional research assistant. All informants needed prompting to a) recall all the possible differences in staff and fiscal support in connection with preparation or implementation of the new program, b) ascribe a value to that new level of effort, and c) agree that that value was representative of institutional support. If the informant had a negative view of the level of institutional support provided the generic program they were reluctant to acknowledge certain items, such as 1, 2, or 3 above, as evidence of such support. Conversely, if the informant had a positive view, those same items were

often volunteered as evidence of support. Probing questions which were not included in the program questionnaire provided sufficient consistent data across programs to distinguish between programs which had planning funds (i.e., financial support from within or without the institution) and programs which did not have such funds. Programs differentiated on that basis were compared to employment levels. No inference of relationship was supported.

Creation of new positions. The data was collected to investigate the number of new generic positions created that were known to the generic graduates interviewed. The actual number of generic positions created and filled in the state was unknown to the researcher and unavailable from any source short of a system-by-system survey. While it seemed that all the systems creating a new position would contact the institutions preparing such professionals, it seemed equally likely that those positions would be created by systems in collaboration with an institution and that those created positions would be ferreted out by graduates desiring jobs. The deficiencies in those assumptions were illustrated in the discussion at the beginning of this section. Many of the graduates were employed by systems with which they intended to remain. Many had been so employed previous to their involvement in

the generic training program. And most did not search for positions outside of their own system. Therefore, while the use of graduate-generated data regarding the numbers of new positions created was not intended to be definitive, it should be noted that the results are not generalizable. However, the fact remains that thirty-one (31) of the forty (40) (77%) of the graduates reporting generic employment and supplying data about their school systems were in positions new to their school systems upon the graduate's completion of the generic program.

Locus of administrative support. The locus of administrative support differed from school system to school system and demonstrated no evidence of being related to the degree of program collaboration or even to program input. However, wherever the formation of the generic role was influenced by the generic graduates themselves, the roles were significantly more consistent with the state's generic definition, and the school principals were more frequently involved.

Conclusion

The findings of this research present evidence that raise more questions than answers. These questions are specifically in the areas of training and collaboration which were examined by this research. These areas need to

be addressed by institutions if the programs they authorize and develop are to serve a more functional role via teachers in public schools. The training programs involved in this research had had little measurable effect at the time of this research in transforming state policies into relevant models which were observable in schools. Specific evidence for thoughtful, timely, and comprehensive planning, involvement, programming, and implementation was lacking in terms of the reported behaviors of the graduates in their positions in the schools. Further, in two (2) programs there was much evidence of a great deal of waste in terms of time, money, and individuals' efforts if measured against program goals of role and behavior changes in the retrained teachers in public schools. This is noted not to identify programs as deficient, but to establish that the lack of data produced to support the premise that greater collaboration would have a measurable effect on utilization and employment of graduates in generic roles may be due to more than the problems identified with the research instrument. The data does demonstrate that an observable degree of separation exists between the training models described by the programs and what the teachers actually do in the school systems. Given the assumption that the generic role would be beneficial for children, for schools, and that generic specialists would

further the intent of the law, procedures and activities which increase the utilization of the role are desirable exercises. The graduates reported being employed in the generic role only in systems with which the institutions had had some exchange of information. None were employed in the role where that communication was not reported. At least that degree of collaboration can be acknowledged as important, if not conclusive, and the result points the way to improvement.

Of major interest for further research is the nature of teachers' input into role design in the context of an autonomous school building led by a principal involved in the total educational program (i.e., including special education) of the school. Also of further interest should be the relevance of the above directly to the design of training programs, and indirectly, to the practice by which state regulations are formed, disseminated, and implemented.

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APPENDIX A

Program Questionnaire

INSTITUTION:_____ Phone #:_____

INTERVIEWEE:_____ Phone #:_____

Street _____

City/Zip _____ CODE:___

PROGRAM TITLE:_____

Interview Date + Time:_____

Questions:

1) Is your generic program a graduate-degree or inservice-license program?

Graduate ( ) Inservice ( ) No ( )

2) Did any students complete your program from September, 1974, to September, 1977?

Yes ( ) No ( )

3) Would you allow me to complete a placement profile on those graduates?

Yes ( ) No ( )

4) Did your staff develop your generic model for service delivery or did you utilize a previously established model as a framework for your program?

_____

5) Did any local school system assist in the development or selection of your type of generic special teacher program, i.e., did school systems provide information that caused a particular model to be either ruled out or selected over other possible models?

_____

_____

6) How did you get information about the model you are following?

_____

_____

7) Were school systems involved in this information process?

_____

_____

8) How would you describe the involvement of local school systems in both the initial stages and ongoing development of your model? (Nature of conversations, type of meetings, range of personnel?)

9) Were there any local school system concerns or contributions that are directly responsible for particular aspects of your model?

10) To what extent would you say the school system was aware of this influence?

11) Have you made any revisions in your model as the result of local school system feedback?

12) How recently was that?

13) What local school systems have you worked with?

14) How does your program define the role of the generic special teacher (mild certification)? In terms of: responsibilities (consulting with other teachers, change agent to school system, relationship to other teachers?)

abilities (competencies?)

14) (continued) How they spend their time (consultation/direct instruction/inservice, etc.?)

_____

_____

_____

15) Was your training program funded during either the planning or implementation stages?

Yes ( ) No ( ) _____

16) When did planning take place? _____

17) Was the program funded during 1974-1975? No ( ) Yes ( )

[IF YES] % Hard ( ) % Soft ( ),

during 1975-1976? No ( ) Yes ( )

[IF YES] % Hard ( ) % Soft ( ),

during 1976-1977? No ( ) Yes ( )

[IF YES] % Hard ( ) % Soft ( )

18) Is the program currently funded? (1977-1978) No ( ) Yes ( )

[IF YES] % Hard ( ) % Soft ( )

19) Were there stipends for students? No ( ) Yes ( ) [IF YES]

How many? ( )

20) May I have a list of generic graduates and their most recent addresses and phone numbers on file? Yes ( ) No ( )

21) Would your program like a copy of the placement profile when I have contacted the graduates?

Yes ( ) No ( )

APPENDIX B

Graduate Questionnaire

INSTITUTION:_____ CODE:____

GRADUATE:_____ Phone #:_____

Street _____

City/Zip _____

PROGRAM TITLE:_____

Graduation Date:_____

Interview Date + Time:_____

Questions:

22) Have you been employed as a generic special teacher in the State of Massachusetts at any time since completing the program at _____?

Yes ( ) No ( )

a Resource Room Teacher? Yes ( ) No ( )

IF YES ON EITHER GO TO QUESTION 29

IF NO ON BOTH

23) What kind of employment do you have? _____

_____

24) Did you apply or interview for any ganeric positions?

Yes ( ) [IF YES] How many? ( )
No ( ) [IF NO, GO TO 26]

25) Did you choose your current position over a generic position?

No ( ) Yes ( ) [IF YES] Why? _____

_____

26) Did you know of any generic positions that did not interest you?

No ( ) Yes ( ) [IF YES] Why? _____

_____

27) Did you intend to become a generic teacher when you entered the program?

Yes ( ) No ( )

28) Did you receive a stipend? Yes ( ) No ( )

END OF INTERVIEW FOR THIS GROUP

29) Are you currently employed as a generic special teacher in the State of Massachusetts?

Yes ( ) No ( )

a Resource Room Teacher?

Yes ( ) No ( )

IF YES ON EITHER GO TO QUESTION 49

IF NO ON BOTH

30) Where were you employed as ( ) a generic teacher/( ) a resource room teacher? (School, system?)

_____

_____

31) How would you describe your role? (Curriculum/teaching/adults/ support and inservice/change agent/ model?)

_____

_____

_____

_____

32) How much of your time did you spend with assigned groups or individuals for direct instruction?

%( )

33) How much of your time did you spend in consultation to regular class teachers?

%( )

34) How closely did you work with regular class teachers?

_____

35) To whom were you directly responsible? _____

Who defined your role? _____

36) Was your position a new one in the system? Yes ( ) No ( )

[IF NO] a redefined position? Yes ( ) No ( ) [IF NO]

Had it existed for several years? Yes ( ) No ( )

37) Were you employed by this school system before you became involved in the training program?

No ( ) Yes ( ) [IF YES]

in what capacity? _____

38) How would you describe the position your training program prepared you for?

_____

_____

_____

_____

39) Was your position consistent with your program preparation? (How was it the same? How was it different?)

_____

_____

_____

_____

40) Where did you do your student teaching for the generic program? (School, system?)

_____

_____

41) Did you receive a stipend? Yes ( ) No ( )

42) How many generic positions did you originally apply for? ( )

43) Why did you leave the ( ) generic/( ) resource room position?

_____

44) What kind of employment do you currently have? _____

_____

45) Did you choose your current position over a generic position?

No ( ) Yes ( ) [IF YES] Why? _____

_____

46) Did you know of any generic positions that did not interest you?

No ( ) Yes ( ) [IF YES] Why? _____

_____

47) Did you intend to become a generic teacher when you entered the program?

Yes ( ) No ( )

FOR FORMER RESOURCE ROOM TEACHERS

48) Did you choose your former position over a generic position?

No ( ) Yes ( ) [IF YES] Why? _____

_____

END OF INTERVIEW FOR THIS GROUP

49) Where are you employed? (School, system?) _____

_____

50) How would you describe your role? (Curriculum/teaching/adults/support and inservice/change agent/model?)

_____

_____

_____

_____

51) How much of your time do you spend with assigned groups or individuals for direct instruction?

%( )

52) How much of your time do you spend in consultation to regular classroom teachers?

%( )

53) How closely do you work with regular classroom teachers?

_____

_____

54) To whom are you directly responsible? _____

Who defines your role? _____

55) Is your position a new one in your system? Yes ( ) No ( )

[IF NO] a redefined position? Yes ( ) No ( ) [IF NO]

Has it existed for several years? Yes ( ) No ( )

56) Were you employed in this school system before you became involved in the training program?

Yes ( ) No ( ) [IF YES] in what capacity?

_____

57) How would you describe the position your training program prepared you for?

_____

_____

_____

_____

58) Is your position consistent with your program preparation? (How is it the same? How is it different?)

_____

_____

_____

_____

59) Where did you do your student teaching for the generic program? (School, system?)

_____

_____

60) Did you receive a stipend? Yes ( ) No ( )

61) How many generic positions did you apply for? ( )

62) Did you know of any generic positions that did not interest you?

No ( ) Yes ( ) [IF YES] Why? _____

_____

63) Did you intend to become a generic teacher when you became involved in the program? Yes ( ) No ( )

_____ END OF INTERVIEW FOR GENERIC

64) Did you choose this position over a generic position? No ( )

Yes ( ) [IF YES] Why? _____

_____

APPENDIX C

Placement Profile

GRADUATE QUESTIONAIRE

INSTITUTION:_____ CODE:____

GRADUATES	Located	Interview Arranged	Interview	Graduation Date	Follow-up Letter	Data Tabled

#	GRADUATE	GRADUATED	GENERIC	GENERIC FUNCTION	RESOURCE ROOM TEACHER							
	TOTAL											

#	DESCRIBED PREPARATION IN GENERIC TERMS	ROLE IS CONSISTENT WITH PREPARATION	% OF TIME IN CONSULTATION	% OF TIME IN DIRECT INSTRUCTION	WORKS WITH REGULAR CLASSROOM TEACHER	PREVIOUSLY ESTABLISHED POSITION	REDEFINED POSITION	NEW POSITION	PREVIOUS POSITION IN SAME SCHOOL SYSTEM	APPLIED FOR GENERIC	KNEW OF GENERIC	INTENDED TO BECOME GENERIC	STIPEND (LOANS EXCLUDED) OR OTHER SUPPORT	INPUT INTO ROLE DESCRIPTION	REPORTS TO:

#	SCHOOL AND SYSTEM	PRACTICUM SITE

APPENDIX D

School Systems Identified as Collaborators in the Development of Generic Special Teacher Programs by the Program Informants

Acton/Boxboro	D	Lynnfield	J
Agewam	C	Marblehead	J
Amherst/Pelham	A,L	Milford	J
Arlington	B	Millis	H
Ashland	H	Milton	I
Bedford	J	Narragansett	D
Boston	B,F,I	Natick	H,I,J
Braintree	J	Needham	H
Brookline	B	Newton	B,C
Burlington	G,I	Northboro	E
Cambridge	G	Northampton	A,K,M
Canton	J	North Shore	
Carlisle	H,I	Collaborative	D
Chelsea	G	Orange	D
Chickopee	K	Pittsfield	A,K
Dedham	H	Reading	G
East Bridgewater	J	Rutland	E
Easthampton	K	Sherborn	I
Erving	L	Shutesbury	L,M
Fitchburg	D	Sommersett	K
Foxboro/Attleboro	J	Springfield	K
Framingham	G,H	Stoneham	G
Franklin Collaborative	H	Sudbury	H
Greenfield	A,K,L	Wakefield	J
Groton/Dunstable	A	Walpole	G
Harvard/Brownfield	D	Waltham	G
Holden	D	Ware	K
Holliston	G,H	Watertown	J
Holyoke	A,K	Wayland	G
Hudson	H	Wellesley	H,I
Lenox	A,K	Westfield	A,K,L
Leominster	D	Westford	B,D
Leverett	L	West Springfield	A,K
Lexington	G,I	Williamsburg	L
Longmeadow	K	Winchester	K
Lowell	D	Woburn	I
Lunenburg	D	Worcester	K,D,E